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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

AN APPROACH TO NON-FORMAL EDUCATION FOR RURAL YOUTH IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

by

RICHARD IRWIN ANDREWS (C)

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

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DEPARTMENT OF RURAL ECONOMY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "An Approach to Non-Formal Education for Rural Youth in Developing Countries" submitted by Richard I. Andrews in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

.....
Supervisor

.....

.....

Date.....

ABSTRACT

Developing countries have become increasingly aware of the potential of their human resources and of the necessity of orienting development programs towards the training and involvement of people living in the rural areas. This has become an important priority because of the size of the rural population in developing countries and the realization of the importance of agriculture in overall economic development. To accomplish this task non-formal educational programs have been shown to be effective in improving the skills and capabilities of rural people involved in agricultural production. The formal educational systems have been ineffective in promoting rural development and have failed to alleviate the problems of migration and unemployment. Non-formal educational programs such as extension services working with organized groups of rural youth seem to have played a valuable role in introducing innovative agricultural ideas into rural areas. This activity has helped improve the productivity and viability of the agriculture sector and has strengthened the quality of rural life.

The present study uses Iraq as an example of how a national rural youth training program could be established in a developing country. In describing the Iraq Rural Youth Program (Sadiq), the study utilizes data from an evaluative

survey conducted among rural adults, youth and government officials. Another source of information was a Guidance Manual which contained a summary of successful methods and processes developed in the establishment of a national program. The author also had personal experience in Iraq in a non-formal educational project sponsored through the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. This involvement provided considerable insight into some of the critical factors in establishing such programs elsewhere.

The material presented in the study suggests that a rural youth program such as Sadiq need be located within the framework of existing government services to rural people. Such a program should be intended to serve non-school youth although a considerable number of school youth may be involved in the formative stages. The program should strive to develop simple, economically feasible agricultural projects as the focus of the educational program. Pilot or experimental groups should be started in various regions of a country to allow testing of the principles in various socio-economic situations. The extension and cooperative agents working with the rural youth program must be given practically oriented in-service training in project operation, program planning and training of local leaders.

The experiences in Iraq showed that if favourable government policies exist towards rural development, a rural

youth program which reflects the existing socio-economic conditions can play an important role in rural development.

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I wish to sincerely thank my family and friends who tolerated my preoccupation while I was writing this thesis. I hope in the future to repay their concern and help. I owe a special thanks to my friends in Iraq for their acceptance and kindness during my assignment. I hope this thesis will be helpful in further work with rural youth in Iraq.

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CHAPTER I

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Views on Development

The view taken towards development and the development process has changed significantly over the past twenty years. Traditional thinking assumed that development would occur through the diffusion of capital and technology from the developed to the less developed countries. It was also assumed that because a particular development model or process worked in one area of the world, it would automatically work in another. It has been recognized for some time that development programs will be more successful if careful attention is given to the human resource aspects of the development process.

In many less developed countries today, there is a realization that any development which occurs must be generated from the needs and aspirations of their people. The bulk of these people are the rural poor, and development must be centered around their needs.

> Most of the developing countries have to change their course. They will be forced to turn away from urbano-centric development, free themselves from the counter productive forces of foreign aid and, above all, exchange their faith in the gradual distribution of

> the fruits of growth for a direct attack on the poverty of the poorest one-third to two-thirds of their population.[1]

As the critical issues within the developing countries become evident, the urge to emulate the industrialized nations diminishes. The importance of beginning from where they are and the necessity of "phased growth"[2] are becoming obvious in many developing countries. Developing countries are aware of the necessity of planning development potential not for its own sake but to lay the groundwork for future development.[3] Development, then, is being seen as a mechanism which provides a more equitable share of resources and services to all people of a country. By developing human resources, a country can make large contributions towards development in economic terms -- the converse situation has proven not to be true. It is necessary, therefore, that development become focused towards areas of increased participation rather than specifically towards increased growth.

> Development -- a synthesis of traditions and progress is a state of mind, a question of wanting to, knowing how to and being able to achieve not simply what is

---

[1] Mende Tibor, "The Development Crisis -- The Real Question," Co-operation Canada, January/February, 1973, p. 6.

[2] J.K. Galbraith, Economic Development, (Harvard University Press, 1968), Chapter 4.

[3] Dudley Seers, "The Meaning of Development," Agricultural Development Council Bulletin, New York, September, 1970, p. 3.

possible for a few but desirable for everyone.[1] This awareness has arisen as a result of a rise in nationalism in developing countries following their independence from colonial rule and an attempt to provide a more equitable distribution of wealth in their country.

Studies in some industrialized countries have also identified the role of human resource development in their own development process. The industrialized countries attempted to calculate which of the three basic resources, land, labor or capital, were responsible for substantial production increases over the past thirty years. They discovered that the increases could not be attributed to these three resources alone. Research by Schultz and others has shown that a large proportion of productivity increases in the United States could be attributed to increases in the quality of "human capital".[2] The educational inputs into the labor force have significantly increased its production capacity and ability to innovate. Developing countries, therefore, are justified in their concern for human resource development both in terms of its implications for equity as well as its productivity potentials.

Developing countries have begun to move towards poli-

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[1] Louis Sabourin, "What is the Role of the University in Development," Co-operation Canada, July/August, 1974, p. 16.

[2] T.W. Schultz, "Reflections on Investment in Man," Journal of Political Economy, LXX (1962), p. 372.

cies of "self-reliance" which attempt to involve people in the development of their own potential resources, for use in their existing situations, without excessive reliance on externally created institutions.[1] In line with this philosophy, the measurement of development has been shifting in some countries from a simple calculation of G.N.P. to considerations of the distribution of wealth and the quality of life of the majority of the people.[1] Thus there is a new awareness that development must be suited to the planned objectives of each country, any transfers of institutions or technology to developing countries must be of the type that will fit that country's development plans.

The Rural Sector in Development Planning

Most developing countries have a predominantly rural agricultural economy with a surplus labor supply. The transfer of large scale capital intensive agricultural projects into this sector would not be consistent with a participatory development approach. This rural sector in most developing economies already plays a significant role in the country's economy. Several Dual Economy theorists (Boeke,

---

[1] J.K. Nyerere, "Education for Self-Reliance," Freedom and Socialism (London: Oxford University Press, 1968), p. 1.

[2] Dudley Seers, op. cit.

Ranis, Fei and Jorgenson) have stressed the importance of agriculture in economic development.[1] The agriculture sector provides a source of labor and food for the industrial sector as well as a market for consumer durables and manufactured inputs from the industrial sector. The export of agricultural produce provides a source of foreign exchange which can be used to purchase agricultural and industrial inputs. To achieve balanced social and economic growth, a country must concentrate its development in the rural as well as the urban sector.

The rural sector of most developing countries is composed of predominantly small scale farmers and tenant farmers living in small agricultural villages. These people derive their living from the land and traditionally have been fairly self-sufficient. These rural farmers (peasants) have links with the larger towns of the area where they market their products and obtain meagre services. There has always been a void between the rural peasant and the town. The town (city) has been in the mainstream of the metropolis-satellite system of resource development.[2] The peasant has often been only a giver in this system and has received little input

---

[1] Y. Hyami and V. Ruttan, Agricultural Development: An International Perspective (Baltimore, Maryland: John Hopkins Press, 1971). pp. 17-24.

[2] Gunder A. Frank, Latin America: Underdevelopment or Revolution (New York: Monthly Review Press, 1969), pp. 3-5.

back from the overall system. Andre G. Frank describes this inequitable relationship in Latin America as follows:

> The National Indian Institute of Mexico goes on to point out that between the Mestizos who live in the nuclear city of the region and the Indians who live in the peasant hinterland, there is in reality a closer economic and social interdependence than might at first glance appear, in that the provincial metropolises 'by being centers of intercourse, are also centers of exploitation.'[1]

This situation has created an aloofness and isolation from the mainstream of development for the rural peasant. It is in this sector, therefore, that development programs geared towards participation and integrative resource utilization could be the most effective. There must be a move towards assisting the peasant to increase his production and allowing him to share more readily in the modern inputs flowing into the country.

A major problem in the rural sector is not that peasant farmers are unable to make economically sound production decisions, but that their decisions reflect the existing "state of the arts" with regards to productive inputs and information.[2] In this regard, Guy Hunter points out that:

> There is at least one part of education which the peasant farmer has already, despite illiteracy.... Within the means at his disposal, he has the skill of managing his land and crops, handed down with small amendments from father to son through many

---

[1] Ibid., p. 6.

[2] T.W. Schultz, Transforming Traditional Agriculture (New Haven, Co.: Yale University Press, 1964).

> generations. As with many traditional skills, it will take an agricultural economist quite some research to put on paper all the possible choices and constraints of his farm management and to plot an optimum from them; only to find out that it is often the same course which the farmer has chosen.[1]

This statement is supported by David Hopper's experiments conducted in Utter Pradesh, India.[2] This information points out the necessity of providing a combination of technology, education and infrastructure to the rural sector, in an integrated form for development to occur.

The size, diversity, uncertainty and traditional social structure of the rural sector make it a difficult area in which to affect change. The rural sector not only yields a product for consumption and the market, it is also a way of life. Any development which occurs in the rural area must involve not only improved production methods, but also reinforcement of the rural way of life. The oft prescribed "trickle down effect" or "spread" effect which is said to occur as a result of industrial development does not generally occur because of the previously mentioned isolation and aloofness between the town and peasant economies. This situation is also aggravated by an inequitable distribution of resources between the industrial and agricultural sectors.

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[1] Guy Hunter, Modernizing Peasant Societies (London: Oxford University Press, 1969), p. 243.

[2] David W. Hopper, "Allocation Efficiency in Traditional Indian Agriculture," Journal of Farm Economies, Vol. 47 (August, 1965).

The "spread" will occur only where resource and market conditions are favourable, but it cannot in fact create its own favourable environment.[1] Development, therefore, must start from the rural sector if it is going to be truly participatory as this is where the masses of people are. There must be a balance between agricultural and industrial development based on their relative contributions towards equity, social justice and economic growth.

Because of the complexity of the problems faced by the peasant, a successful form of rural development would consist of an integrated approach to provide support for the economic, social and personal development of the rural producer and his family. Peasants require information on modern production alternatives and must have ready access to the physical and financial inputs required in their operations as well as to training in the application of these methods to their particular farming practices.

In most developing countries improved technical innovations are generated through government research institutions. In these institutions existing research is adapted for local conditions if it was developed in a foreign situation or is actually conducted. A research and development program allows innovations to be designed and tested in the format in which they will eventually be used. A vital link in the

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[1] Gunnar Myrdal, Asian Drama: Volume II (New York: Pantheon, 1968), p. 1186.

research and development process is the transfer of the information from the research institutions to the agricultural producer. In many countries, both industrialized and developing, this becomes the role of a government organized Agricultural Extension Service.

Education in the Rural Sector

The Agricultural Extension Service in most countries consists of agricultural field workers who provide a link between government services and the peasants. Extension services were formerly established on the assumption that if farmers could be shown the benefits of improved agricultural methods and be given training in how to obtain and implement these improved methods in their operation, agricultural production would increase. In the early stages of extension programs, results were not always as effective as expected. This lack of effectiveness can now be identified as having occurred for the following reasons:

(a) It was discovered that the extension services had trouble in affecting change without the support of a rural infrastructure (credit facilities, markets, service center and road systems).

(b) Early extension programs were not conscious of the existing rural social structure and concentrated on the adult male and neglected the women and youth. This is not to say that some programs directed toward

adult males were not successful. Many, in fact, were, but they ignored the potential contributions which could have been made by other members of the farm family.

(c) The use of poorly tested, imported, advice has caused problems at the field level. There is often a serious gap between research and extension.

Realization of the above elements led to the move towards a more integrated system of working with the whole farm family. It is realized now that traditional extension services would have been stronger if they had included youth and women in their activities. Consequently, it is now generally accepted that women and youth play a vital role in rural development.[1]

Infrastructure is also a limiting factor. For example it is of little use to train farmers in fertilizer use if they cannot finance and purchase it with only a reasonable amount of effort. All Agricultural Extension Services were thus required to view their role in a broader, more integrated perspective.

In an attempt to broaden their scope, many extension services began to include youth in their educational programs. The youth of any country are enthusiastic, idealistic and in search of truth and have vast development potential if they

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[1] Wajihuddin Ahmed, "The Husband is the Employer", CERES, March/April, 1975, p. 28.

are meaningfully involved in the process of development. In a rural peasant family, decisions are often a result of influences from all members of the family. Although often the father is the symbolic "head" of the family, many of his decisions are made with the assistance of other members of the family, especially the wife and, in some cases, the children. There can be benefits, therefore, in planning educational experiences which will reach all members of the farm family.

Rural Youth

Governments often see youth as an element to be stirred up to achieve drastic reform or a force to be subdued to maintain the status quo. Governments generally see youth education in two ways; if youth can be educated and motivated in functions which improve the society, the government has a strong usable force, but if youth are educated and do not have the opportunity to become meaningfully involved in improving their society, they could become a source of unrest.

> 'Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe' wrote H.G. Wells nearly fifty years ago in his Outline of History. African political leaders and decision makers know that this catastrophe will occur if they deny to their people their pressure for education. Yet they know also that in meeting these demands, they are compounding problems for themselves if the type of education provided results in the creation of expectations without providing the corresponding fulfillment.[1]

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[1] Albert T. Porter, "Future Prospects of Education in Africa," Prospects: Quarterly Review of Education, Vol. II, No. 2 (Summer, 1972), p. 169.

In simple terms, there is an urgent need for youth education to be restructured. This must be done within the existing situation of a country, its people and its chosen path of development as the guiding force. Education must provide youth with equal access to relevant skills for use within their society. This concept is true not only for rural people, but also for the upper classes who live in urban areas.

> Even the elite who have ready access to education are inhibited from full participation as long as the education they receive is removed from the realities of life situations.[1]

Youth, therefore, must be considered a viable force in developing countries and the educational process used is vital in promoting participation of youth in the development process.

A conference dealing with the role of youth in national development planning was held in Bankok in 1966. It was here that the situation facing youth in Asia was accurately summarized. In the region encompassed by the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, it was calculated that 50 percent of the population was under the age of 21 years. From two fundamental points of view this situation is of unparalleled significance for economic and social development in Asian countries.

> On the one hand, the younger generation -- particularly in the capacity to absorb knowledge, to innovate and

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[1] United Nations Center for Economic and Social Information, Youth in the Second Development Decade (New York: United Nations, 1972), p. 18.

> to generate needed social and institutional changes -- represents the spearhead of human resources for future development. On the other hand, the problems and needs of children and youth, in terms of welfare and preparation for life, impose heavy demands upon the resources of countries in the region; it was recognized that these demands are indeed inescapable if the crucial development possibilities if Asian young people are to be fully realized in the coming years.[1]

The fact that population growth is proceeding at such a rapid pace tends to reduce the impact of any economic growth which occurs in the area. The population increases tend to consume a large part of the incremental growth, leaving little for reinvestment. This has definite implications for young people in the region.

These countries are facing a critical situation with regards to their youth as present economic conditions are forcing them to concentrate on short term "maintenance" priorities and thereby to neglect the importance of long term educational priorities. It is this latter fact which affects youth programs in many countries and serves only to postpone a crisis situation. Since the majority of youth in developing countries live in the rural sector, any attempt to improve the future educational awareness of the population must involve a rural-oriented program.

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[1] United Nations Children's Fund, Children and Youth in National Planning and Development in Asia (Bankok, Thailand: U.N., March, 1966), p. 21.

Education for Rural Youth

The Agricultural Extension Services of many developing countries have become involved with providing rural youth with educational experiences which are relevant to their existing life-style and which allow them more opportunity for participation. They are moving away from their preoccupation with adult males. Adult males in some rural sector were found to be rather rigid and traditional in their willingness to accept change. This can be explained in part by the high threshold of risk which already exists in agriculture. There is a natural reluctance to change their methods, which have by trial and error been developed to reduce risk, and thus increase the risk involved in their production process. New methods must be proven to be a definite overall improvement over traditional methods and to have low risk. The consequences of failure in this sector are very significant.

Youth can have a role in this educational process because of their lower concern for risk and their desire to learn. They are less restrained in their acceptance of new ideas. Agricultural Extension Services have become increasingly aware of this situation and have involved rural young people in practical agricultural projects on their own farms. This provides a practical demonstration of a new technique within the immediate environment of the farm family. When fathers and mothers observe their children becoming involved

in a successful project on their own farm, they are often inclined to adopt part or all of the project themselves.

By working with rural youth in this manner, Agricultural Extension Services can accomplish two vital functions; namely, introducing innovative agricultural methods into the rural sector, and providing, through agricultural activities, a valuable training to rural youth. This training will allow the youth to carry on a more rewarding life-style in the rural area and thus allow them to participate more effectively in the development process. Two important aspects of this extension service youth training is that it is of a practical, project-oriented type and it occurs in an out-of-school context.

Rural people must begin to realize the alternatives and potentials which exist in the rural sector and thus stem the rate of rural-to-urban migration. Training must strengthen rural-oriented skills, not only in agriculture but also in small rural industry and community leadership. The whole educational process must be geared toward strengthening the rural sector. The concepts are not dissimilar to the concerns of organizers of 4-H and other rural youth programs in North America.

The formal education system in most developing countries does not presently have the capacity or curriculum to provide a rural-oriented education to all their people. The formal system is often geared towards providing schooling which is urban oriented and which is based on qualifying

students for a higher level of schooling. This process is not very relevant to a rural young person who drops out of the system, nor does it provide much faith to go on to another form of education. In many developing countries rural youth do not have the opportunity to attend a school of any type. Many countries are now realizing the need for an alternative system of education.

Non-Formal Education

Non-formal education is a term used to describe a form of organized learning outside the formal schooling system. As described by Coombs, non-formal education is:

> ...an organized educational activity outside the established formal system -- whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity -- that is intended to serve identifiable learning clientele and learning objectives.[1]

The out-of-school project-oriented activities of extension-type rural youth programs definitely fall into the category of non-formal education. Agricultural Extension Services operate at a field level which implies that problems are easily identifiable and programs can be directed towards those who are directly involved. Some of the major problems of the rural sector are rural-urban migration and lack of productivity in agriculture.

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[1] Philip H. Coombs, New Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth (New York: International Council for Education Development, 1973), p. 11.

There is a tendency for rural youth to migrate to urban centers because of the present educational orientation and resource endowment of their countries. The provision of a program of practical learning-by-doing projects to increase agricultural skills serves to reinforce the agricultural and rural life-style. Youth, through their association with groups of other young people, would learn the important principles of leadership, cooperation and responsibliity. These abilities combined with their newly learned agricultural skills, provides a pool of talented people to strengthen the rural sector.

Rural youth have a great potential to enhance the development process in the rural sector. A non-formal approach to education can involve a larger portion of rural youth in an educational process geared specifically to their needs. It also offers other advantages in developing countries. A non-formal education system requires a much lower capital expenditure and is especially suited to meet the problems of rural areas. Governments with limited education budgets and a large rural sector can readily gain positive results through the use of a non-formal education system. In non-formal programs, existing institutions and resources are utilized, thus reducing costs. Since agriculture is an important element of rural life, it provides a focal point around which the learning process can be structured and thus remain relevant to the people involved. This approach will prove a valuable asset to rural development programs by pro-

viding a corps of rural oriented, trained people to participate in and lead rural development projects. A relevant educational system, then, is a requisite to promote rural development which is, in turn, a major impetus to overall economic development.

Another factor related to the cost of education systems is the rate at which educated youth leave the rural sector. If the education youth receive is urban oriented and they migrate to the urban sector on graduation this represents an economic loss to the rural sector which have borne the cost of the youths' schooling.

Rural Youth and Development Planning

Economic development constitutes a major part of a developing country's goals. In order for economic development to be relevant to all members of a society, it must occur in all sectors and involve participation of the population in the use of resources. The agriculture sector is large in most developing countries and its potential and importance for overall development is significant. Agricultural modernization is necessary to increase agricultural production and this modernization can only occur through a combination of education and infrastructure development. Rural youth will become a vital element of rural education programs as they will utilize the skills they learn and through their learning process, their parents will also learn

the importance of modern methods of agriculture. The inputs into an improved rural youth education system should not be viewed as costs to a development plan; rather they should be seen as possible stimulus to future rural development and economic growth.

Context of Thesis Topic

Involvement of Author

The author became personally interested in rural youth programs while working with the 4-H Program in Alberta, Canada for five years. After being involved in field level work, it was evident to the author that the 4-H Program was playing a definite and positive role in the rural development of Alberta. He found that a significant number of successful farmers and local leaders had been in 4-H when they were young.

The 4-H Program began as an extension tool to introduce improved varieties of crops and livestock to the agricultural sector. The program is still based on agricultural and homemaking projects but concentrates more on the personal development of young people.

Another experience with rural youth was the assignment of the author to Iraq in the position of Associate Expert with the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. In Iraq, the author was in charge of a project which involved the establishment of a national rural youth

program. The author was located in the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform in Baghdad and worked at the policy making level with senior civil servants. As a result of extensive involvement in project design at the field level, the author prepared a comprehensive Guidance Manual for field workers and designed a survey to allow the government to evaluate their Rural Youth Program. The author, along with his counterpart, who was Chief of the Rural Youth Program for Iraq, was involved in policy formation for the national development of the program, and thus gained a major insight into the processes required for the design of a national rural youth program.

Iraq has a large rural sector that is developing steadily and is facing many of the educational problems of other developing countries. As in most developing countries, a large proportion of the rural population is under 25 years of age (63 percent in 1971),[1] and they are an important element of social and economic change.

In the short time (2½ years) the author was in Iraq, some very positive results were occurring as a result of the rural youth program, as will be seen from the forthcoming material. The Rural Youth Program became accepted as an integral part of the Rural Development Program being carried on in that country and it became a valuable tool of the

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[1] United Nations, Demographic Yearbook (New York: Department of Economics and Social Affairs, 1971), p. 440.

Agricultural Extension Service.

Purpose of the Thesis

The broad purpose of this thesis is to explore the role of rural youth in the development process, and to suggest ways and means by which work with rural youth could be organized so that youth could effectively contribute to national development. In proposing strategies, the experiences of Iraq may provide a framework on which other countries may structure their rural youth programs. The thesis will present some methods and processes which were found to work successfully in Iraq in hopes that they will be of some use in the planning process of similar programs in other countries.

Objectives of Thesis

In defining the content of the thesis, the following objectives are of prime importance:

1. To define the importance of rural youth work and to outline its contributions to an integrated rural development program.
2. To examine the role and potential of non-formal education for rural youth in the development process.
3. To describe the establishment process of the Rural Youth Program in Iraq with emphasis on organizational structure and training and to recommend the methods

and processes required to develop a rural youth program at the local level.

4. To analyze the limitations and identify the major problems which are involved in establishing a rural youth program.

5. To demonstrate how the principles derived from the development of a rural youth program in Iraq could be used in developing similar activities in other developing countries.

Thesis Methods

In writing the thesis, the following sources of information and methods of analysis were used:

1. An extensive review of available literature was conducted in the following areas: youth in developing countries, role of education in development, role of non-formal education in development, agricultural training models and current thought on international development.

2. A special emphasis was placed on gathering information related to non-formal education and specifically to non-formal education for youth. The definition of non-formal education is in its early stages, so examples and models of existing programs were not readily available for analysis.

3. In order to provide an example of a non-formal

education program for rural youth, the author describes the newly developed Rural Youth Training Program in Iraq. The methods and processes used in establishing the Iraq program are described. In addition to this, an extensive analysis of the program was conducted. The data for this analysis resulted from a survey which included interviews with members, parents and government officials who were involved with the Youth Program, and others who were not involved with the program.

4. The survey consisted of two interview schedules administered to:

(a) Youth and parents in 32 rural villages.

Groups interviewed:

(i) Youth who were members of the rural youth program.

(ii) Parents and adults who were involved in the rural youth program.

(iii) Youth who were not involved with the rural youth program.

(iv) Parents and adults who were not involved with the rural youth program.

(b) Seventy-two government officials of the district and regional level of the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform.

Major groups of officials:

(i) Extension Agents - district level.

(ii) Cooperative Agents - district level.

(iii) Supervisors - regional and district level.

(iv) Directors - regional level.

The survey was carried out by a team of young agricultural extension agents who personally visited the clubs and government officials and completed an interview schedule of each meeting. The interview schedules were translated from Arabic to English and the results were tabulated and analyzed. From this analysis, significant relationships were identified and major implications for future growth and structure of the program were illustrated.

The survey was designed to sample attitudes and opinions towards the Rural Youth Program to determine which aspects could be strengthened and which were providing sound educational experiences. As a result of the survey, a case study was prepared which showed the role that the Rural Youth Program played in rural development in Iraq. This material provided the basis for the section of the thesis which develops some general guidelines which may prove beneficial to educational planneers in other countries.

5. In order to provide a general model of how the program developed in Iraq, a portion of a technical guidance manual prepared for extension agents was included in the thesis. The guidance manual was prepared by the author and represents the tested results

of many trial methods and experiments carried out in the initial rural youth centers. Since the final results represent considerable input from the youth and parents themselves, they will provide a fairly accurate example and model of what a functioning program looks like and how it is developed.

6. The material mentioned above forms the core of the thesis. It has been combined with first hand administrative and field level information which the author collected during his 2½ year working experience in Iraq. This combination of material should provide a clear understanding of the issues related to rural youth education.

Plan of Work

In order to meet the objectives of the thesis and utilize the cited methodology, the following plan of work was drawn up.

1. In Chapter I, the problem is defined by examining the overall view of development and by specifically looking at rural development and how rural youth can be allowed to participate more effectively through involvement in relevant educational experiences.
2. In Chapter II, some of the critical issues facing rural youth such as education, employment and migration are discussed. A detailed analysis of rural youth

training as a form of non-formal education is also conducted. This chapter also contains a description of non-formal education and a discussion of its role in the rural development process.

3. Chapter III contains a description of the Rural Youth Program in Iraq. This description includes the social and historical situation in Iraq as well as the structure and organization of the Rural Youth Program within the government. There is also a complete description of the objectives, philosophy and programs offered through the Rural Youth Program.

4. Chapter IV contains some specific examples of methods and processes which were introduced and developed in the Rural Youth Program in Iraq. There is a concise description of local level organization, program planning, teaching and demonstrating and project operation and finance. This chapter also contains some preliminary analysis of some of the critical factors of organization.

5. Chapter V is an analysis of the major results of the survey which was conducted among members, parents and government officials. The survey analysis points up some of the important relationships and limitations in the program and has implications for future design and structure.

6. Chapter VI is a summary of the major concepts developed throughout the thesis. This chapter draws to-

gether the major implications of the thesis and illustrates some of the significant lessons which arose from the Iraq experience. The chapter forms a set of guidelines for other countries to consider in the establishment of a similar form of agricultural training for their rural youth.

7. The main body of the thesis is supplemented by the addition of an appendix which contains the interview schedule used in the survey of youth, parents and government officials as well as the raw data collected in this survey.

Limitations of the Thesis

The thesis attempts to illustrate the importance of providing rural young people with relevant educational experiences in order to promote dynamic rural development in the developing countries. The thesis singles out youth and does not deal with the role of adult women or men. Iraq's experience provides an example of how the program developed in a particular country. There could be problems if the principles developed in Iraq are applied directly to another country without careful reflection on the different settings. The thesis intends to set out guidelines for proceeding with development of a similar program; it does not provide a model which can be directly transferred between countries.

The survey conducted in the thesis gives some indication of trends and attitudes, but it was too general to identify many casual relationships. To accomplish this, a more in-depth survey would be required. The survey was carried out by a group of young extension agents who, although trained in survey techniques, were not always able to gather the specific information required for the survey. The data were gathered in Arabic and translated to English this no doubt caused some bias to enter and allowed some loss of detail as well misunderstanding and different perceptions of meanings.

Because of the author's personal involvement with the program in Iraq, there may be some bias in his interpretation of survey results and in his general attitude towards the success of the program. While in Iraq the author was involved in the testing of alternatives for rural youth program design. This testing enabled the formulation of policy recommendations which led to development of a national policy for rural youth. The final policy recommendations were the result of a distillation of experiences to draw out the positive alternatives. These positive alternatives are also promoted throughout the thesis and the reader may get the impression that there were no problems in the program which is of course untrue. There were in fact many problems and the author will try to relate the major problem areas where they arise, but he realizes there is a bias towards presenting an optimistic view of the program.

CHAPTER II

THE ROLE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION FOR YOUTH IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

It has been illustrated in the previous chapter that in order for a developing country to have a balanced and integrated rural development policy, the type of education and training young people receive is of vital importance. This chapter will attempt to define clearly the potential role of rural youth in the development process and to illustrate some of the critical issues facing rural youth at present, namely education, employment and migration.

Historical Attitudes Toward Youth

Youth have often been given a special status which sets them apart from society as a whole. They have often been utilized by society to perform functions for which society felt they were well suited. The Communist State in the People's Republic of China was greatly assisted in its formation by spirited youth organizations. The politicization of the masses in the "New China" was carried out by highly committed groups of young people. The Zionist movement to form the new State of Israel was facilitated by the youthful zeal of young Jews all over the world. The desired

attitudes of hard work and a pioneering spirit were manifested in groups of youth on the harsh frontiers of Israel. At some time in their history most countries have relied on their strong, devoted and enthusiastic youth to staff their military forces and to wage war on command.

There has been an increasing concern with youth over the past ten years as the children of the post war baby boom began to "hit the streets". Adults seem to have difficulty communicating with these youth, claiming that a "generation gap" exists and that they are unable to penetrate the subculture of youth. There are, however, some inconsistencies in this argument as there is strong evidence that the culture of youth was created by adults. An example of this can be seen in the consumer market where advertising, which is produced by adults, creates a fabricated illusion of what it takes to be young.

> To what degree is the so-called 'culture of youth' the product of action and more or less clever manipulation by controlling groups of adults, who often indulge young people according to the commercial rule that -- the customer is always right? This phenomenon at least should properly be described as 'culture for young people' since the youngsters role is mainly passive.[1]

There is some difficulty, then, in defining exactly what the situation or role of youth is or should be. Society has varying attitudes toward youth which are present at various

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[1] Kazimierz Zygulski, "Sociological Approaches to the Culture of Youth," International Social Science Journal, Vol. XXIV, No. 2 (1972), p. 366.

stages of their development.

A recent Commonwealth Youth Seminar raised the subject of contradictions when the delegates talked of the double standard applied to youth: "They are expected to act with adult responsibility and in other situations are treated as children."[1] Another popular example is the practice in many countries of drafting young men into the armed forces at the age of 17-18 and not allowing them to vote until they are 21. The same Youth Seminar spoke of the generation gap as a "knowledge gap" created by the higher levels of education received by youth[2] as compared to what their parents experienced. It was pointed out that the solution to this problem lies primarily with adult education for parents, not with some drastic change which must occur for youth.

We must not only consider <u>if</u> we are going to prepare youth for the future, but also <u>how</u> we are going to prepare them. The knowledge which will prepare them best is that which will allow them to participate more effectively in the world around them. In speaking of educational processes to achieve this end, Paulo Friere makes the following comments about a rural-oriented extension education which must prepare youth to meet the realities they will face in the future.

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[1] Commonwealth Secretariat, <u>Youth and Development in Cyprus</u> (London: C.S., 1972), p. 10.

[2] <u>Ibid</u>., p. 12.

> Extension education should function not as a transfer process, but as a... transformation of the knowledge of the world into an instrument for adapting man to the world.[1]

Thus it is important to consider not only that youth should be educated but also how they should be educated and to what ends.

In the preparation of youth to become active participants in society, the family has always played a major role. In today's society, this socialization process is becoming less and less complete and the traditional sources such as the family must be supplemented to produce a prepared and aware individual.

Traditionally, the family has been the major source of learning; however:

> As societies become modernized, the family is less able to function as an allocator and socializer of these more complex and numerous roles and new institutions of socialization develop to replace traditional agencies.[2]

These supplementary institutions, however, must provide experiences which assist in broadening the learning capabilities of young people.

Critical Issues for Rural Youth

Many of the complexities of our modern society relate to

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[1] Paulo Friere, "Knowledge in a Critical Appraisal of the World," CERES, Vol. V, No. 3 (1971), p. 27.

[2] T. Wallace and S.G. Weeks, "Youth in Uganda," International Social Science Journal, Vol. XXIV, No. 2 (1972), p. 375.

youth in particular; it is imminently important that some of the issues and complexities facing youth are brought into focus. Youth in particular are singled out since in a few special areas, they are seriously affected by policy decision of the society as a whole. Young people must be considered in policy decisions as any negative impact on the youth of a country will be evidenced for many years in the attitudes and orientations of this group as they become adults.

As the youth of developing countries emerged into the 1960's and the 1970's, they were preceded by an unprecedented period of economic development in the industrialized world. In general, this rush of development has been rather inequitably distributed, which has given rise to a revised social and economic order within developing countries and in their relations to the industrialized countries. As many developing countries chose to emulate the industrialized countries, they put primary emphasis on promoting the industrial sectors of their economy, much to the disadvantage of the rural sector. What developments did occur in the rural sector were often centered around cash crop or plantation agriculture. The recently introduced high yielding varieties of wheat and rice were a significant contribution to agricultural production, but a weak rural infrastructure to distribute agricultural inputs and market services has limited their effec-

tive use to larger scale farmers.[1]

These are but some of the factors which have contributed to the large disparity between the urban industrial and rural agricultural sectors. One manifestation of this disparity is an increased rate of migration out of the rural sector by rural young people. This migration is caused by a lack of employment in the rural sector and also by the educational orientation which youth are receiving through the present school system.

Migration

The lack of success of rural development in the past has allowed rural life conditions to deteriorate compared to urban life and has caused rural-urban migration to increase rapidly. Being high mobile, young people in these areas are often the first to leave, leaving a dearth of future expertise in the rural sector. In the short run, an increase in rural development activities will increase discontent and promote migration in the following ways:

(a) Improved distribution of present educational facilities creates an awareness of an individual's situation.

(b) Expanded communication facilities (radio, tele-

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[1] Guy Hunter, "Agricultural Administration and Institutions," Food Research Institute Studies in Agricultural Economics, Trade and Development, Vol. XII, No. 3 (1973), p. 234.

vision, movies) brings the outside world into the village home.

(c) Improved health allows for an increase in the rate of population growth. This results in financial stress on individual families and causes crowding and a decrease in the availability of farm land.

These factors, when combined with the failure of development plans to advance to the stage of creating sufficient job opportunities for young people in the rural areas, tend to speed the rate of migration of young people. Development, therefore, must be planned over a long term and applied equally to all social and economic sectors of a country.

A study of youth migration in Thailand looked at the effects of rural-urban migration and found that it was having a serious impact on traditional attitudes. In this regard, the study made the following comments.

> This migration can lead to an inversion of social norms; a person with conventional attitudes who loves the rural area and who earns an honest living in the rural area will be regarded as poor and worthless to society. A person who migrates to town, lives on crime, will be able to live a glamorous life and have high prestige. This is a dangerous situation for any society and must be reversed.[1]

It is obvious from this report that young people require viable alternatives in the rural area to strengthen the quality of rural life.

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[1] Hibonah Sasidhorn, "Youth Problems in Thailand," Youth and Society, Vol. 1, No. 4 (June, 1970),

Due to the existing industrial capacity of the industrialized countries, they will be able to satisfy world needs for manufactured goods for some years to come. Urban centers in developing countries cannot continue to provide employment for the large numbers of rural migrants. The combination of these factors leads to the conclusion that developing countries with large rural sectors will continue to have a large rural population for a long time.[1]

In many developing countries, there is a negative expectation by youth and adults about their future if they remain in their rural milieu and occupation. This often determines the decision to migrate. When youth are at the adolescent stage, which is often an unsettled period, the prospect of an inadequate future or no future at all is a strong force which promotes migration. It is these expectations of young people which must be managed or manipulated by governments if they are to deal effectively with the migration problem.

Link between Migration and Education

There is a definite link between education and migration -- education promotes long term rural-urban migration. A study by Caldwell in Ghana showed that sixty-five percent of male respondents with no education had no intention of

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[1] Julius Nyerere, "Education for Self-Reliance," in his book Freedom and Socialism (Oxford University Press, 1968), p. 5.

migrating; in contrast, only thirty-eight percent of those with extended primary and middle schooling had no intention of migrating.[1] This data gives as an example of how a European type education has reinforced migration. A vital question emerging from this observation is how can education be used as a policy measure to manage the rate, type and destination of migration?[2]

Education can act to reinforce or counter life cycle factors. Traditionally, youth who have completed their schooling neither expect to, nor is expected to, undertake the tasks involved in subsistence farming. Nyerere, the current President of Tanzania, has written that "even parents and relatives accept that a graduate should not labour."[3] The only alternative to this situation is migration to a different life-style. In many areas, migration is viewed as a way for youth to prove their manhood and gain prestige.[4] Adolescent youth in West Africa were shown to have a strong

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[1] J.C. Caldwell, African Rural Urban Migration (New York: Columbia University Press, 1969), p. 62.

[2] L.P. Apedaile, "Effect of Education on Migration" (Paper prepared for the Education and Mobility Seminar sponsored by the Canadian Council and UNESCO of Stanley House, New Richmond, Quebec, July 8-12, 1974), p. 7.

[3] J.K. Nyerere, Ujama -- Essays on Socialism (Oxford University Press, 1968), p. 110.

[4] J. Guler, "On the Theory of Rural-Urban Migration," in Migration, edited by J.A. Jackson (Cambridge University Press, 1969), p. 137.

resistance to parental discipline and lack of economic power;[1] this situation can be alleviated to some extent by education which will develop independence and earning power. However, if the education is traditional urban oriented schooling, it will also promote migration. A new form of education is required which reinforces the potential of the individual and the rural sector and gives youth the resources to make a fair choice between the rural and urban sectors.

Migration is the end result of youth not being able to achieve a satisfactory life-style in the rural area and striving for a life which is perceived to be better in the urban sector. The involvement of youth in viable agricultural projects and rural industries can help to create positive attitudes and hopefullness in the rural sector to stem the rush to the "city lights".

Employment

The stability created within a country with a high rate of employment has been shown to be substantial. Unemployment, on the other hand, has severe economic and psychological effects on individuals and the country as a whole. In the western developed countries there has been a concurrent rise in productivity and unemployment (or mechani-

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[1] M. Banton, West African City: A Study of Tribal Life in Freetown (Oxford University Press, 195), p. 48.

zation).[1] The problem in developing countries is caused by a combination of a growing population and a tendency to use capital intensive production methods in an effort to raise national productivity. "This raises the question as to how far the generation of employment can be considered a matter of economics and how far it is a social responsibility."[2] Since young people represent the largest addition to the labor market each year, special consideration should be given to their opportunities and training.

Governments of developing countries faced with rising population and unemployment have some important policy decisions to make. If a country is to have national development plans based on participation and growth, there could be some optimum level of mechanization to work towards, when the rate of population growth is considered. It would be easier to grow slowly to an optimum level of mechanization, than to cut back to increase participation in the future. The employment problem could be resolved if the primary emphasis of developing countries was participation of their population rather than growth in absolute terms. The question of employment can be closely tied to that of education; if young people were given a broad and adaptable educational

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[1] Commonwealth Secretariat, Youth and Development in Malta, Report of the Commonwealth Youth Seminar (London: C.S., 1972).

[2] Ibid., p. 18.

experience, they would have more opportunities open to them when they finished their education.

North American culture places a high status by "having a job", and tends to measure success on this criteria. These values have been transmitted to many developing countries along with the rush to industrialization. Graduating into adulthood is symbolized by having a job, but society also says everything will be better if you get an education and often the formal schooling system alienates youth from possible jobs and creates elitist attitudes. Any dropouts from this elite schooling process are considered failures. If a more job-oriented education could be created and industry could be made more aware of its responsibility to apprenticeship, there could be more on-the-job training for young people, which could provide the dignity of having a job and also create a position for lifelong learning.[1]

Education

"Education and more of it" has often been held out as the solution to rural development problems. No one will deny that education is important, but it is now realized that the type and quality of education must be combined with other developments in the rural area to be successful.

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[1] George A. Pettitt, Prisoners of Culture (New York: Charles Scribners and Sons, 1970).

Education provided for young people must be in tune with what practical future potentials exist in a specific region or country. "Educating the young for roles which are subsequently denied is, according to the theory of 'latent deviance', educating for revolution."[1] There is also an urgent need for social reforms in order to allow the results of education to be manifested.

> You cannot educate a peasant to increase his productivity if most of the yield from his toil goes to the landlord as rent. Education alone cannot transform the system.[2]

These factors are recognized by many Third World leaders and the explosive combination of large scale schooling of young people without the commensurate employment opportunities has led to a slow down of schooling programs to suppress the possibliity of rebellion.[3]

The colonists of many of the developing countries used the education system to their advantage in manipulating youth. There was a need for skills to further the administrative and exploitive aims of the colonists and these skills came to a large degree from the youth of the country. What was required -- and accomplished -- was the indoctrination of a

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[1] Geneva Kupfer, "Education and Development: Papua New Guinea" (Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Alberta, Community Development Program, Edmonton, 1973).

[2] Le Thanh Khoi, "In Search of a National Culture," CERES, Vol. 4, No. 3 (May-June, 1971), p. 29.

[3] Albert T. Porter, op. cit., p. 169.

foreign value system and learning process, while suppressing the awareness of existing potentialities of youth, to achieve conformity within the system. This manipulation was effectively performed in many countries under colonial rule with the result that when the exploitive force was removed, the "awareness of potential" did not exist. The schooling system which had created this "impediment" was slow to be replaced because it had been so successful in accomplishing its objectives.

Rural youth, as well as adults, need desperately to break out of this pattern and achieve new levels of self-reliance and self-determination. These new levels are illustrated by Guy Hunter, who speaks of the need for education which allows people to participate more fully in determining their destiny.

> The very first tasks of rural education are helping the villages to walk more confidently into a wider world, emphasizing the trust which education must win, the continued support which is needed from the system of values and observances, the need for technical help in improving the means of livelihood.[1]

Education then must strive ultimately for the development of a more complete person able to exist in harmony with his world. Paulo Friere extends this definition to include the necessity of allowing man the opportunity to participate in the formation and guidance of the world around him.

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[1] Guy Hunter, Modernizing Peasant Societies (Oxford University Press, 1969), p. 244.

> ...the effort required is not one of education, but of conscientization. If it is successfully carried out, it allows individuals to assume critically the position they have in relation to the rest of the world. The critical taking up of this position brings them to assume the true role incumbent on them as men. That is the role of being subjects in the transformation of the world which humanizes them.[1]

Goulet agrees with Friere's philosophy when he speaks of the role of education in the cultural creation of a "new man" capable of autonomy and the liberation of victims of an illicit society.[2]

Education must therefore begin to deal more closely with the needs of youth and allow their participation in the planning of future learning activities.

The three issues of migration, education, and employment are intricately linked and of vital concern in rural development in developing countries. The development potential of youth has often been ignored or dealt with in a traditional manner; creative and innovative programs for youth will play a large part in future development in developing countries. Karl Mannheim has stated this as follows:

> The dynamic societies which want to make a new start, whatever their social or political philosophy may be, will rely mainly on the co-operation of youth. They will organize their vital resources and will use them

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[1] Paulo Friere, "Knowledge in a Critical Appraisal of the World," CERES, Vol. 4, No. 3 (1971), p. 57.

[2] Denis Goulet, "Development or Liberation," International Development Review, Vol. XIII, No. 3 (1971).

in breaking down the established direction of social development.[1]

The information presented so far points out the need for a revised form of education in order to stimulate employment and to influence the rate of migration.

Non-Formal Education

To briefly define non-formal education again, it could be said that it is a learning process geared towards a specific group of people, to meet the expressed needs of that group on a particular subject. The learning is an end in itself and usually has some practical application in the daily life or livelihood of the participants. Non-formal education can play a role by providing learning experiences which are specifically related to the needs of an individual and the resources he has available. Since non-formal education is geared towards specific groups of people, it does not create unrealistic expectations. It provides learning which allows youth and adults to proceed more readily along a path which is feasible.

Under many existing educational systems, the education process is seen as fixed in time and place and often skills and attitudes from other regions are taught to and adopted by students. There is a definite overriding them of "educa-

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[1] Karl Mannheim, "The Problems of Youth in Modern Society," Diagnosis of Our Time (London: Routledge and K. Paul, 1943), p. 210.

tion for production" with a regimented qualification system required to officially complete the process. This approach is far from that of the non-formal system where education is seen as the learning of practical skills and is considered to be a lifelong process.

Education should be structured to facilitate learning as this is a basic aspect of human nature though it is often inhibited by lack of opportunity. Young people should be provided with learning opportunities which meet the following goals:

> 1. Improve the economic position of an individual family or community.
>
> 2. Enhance the social, cultural and political participation.
>
> 3. Stimulate interest and provide entertainment.[1]

These are goals which could be met through various forms of non-formal education which views learning in this broad sense.

There are several philosophies of learning and knowledge which are emerging in contradiction to the traditional "schooling" type of education. Paulo Friere, as a result of his work in Latin America, speaks of learning as follows:

> Thoughtful and critical Latin Americans (as well as those linked with the maintenance of existent structures) no longer think of learning to read as acquiring a mere technical skill, but as a process implying values, forming mentalities and leading to social and political consequences.[2]

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[1] George A. Pettitt, Prisoners of Culture (New York: Charles Scribners and Sons, 1970), pp. 262-275.

[2] Thomas Saunders, The Paulo Friere Method, American Universities Field Staff Bulletin, Vol. XV, No. 1 (Chile), p. 2.

A somewhat more practical approach to learning, and in some ways contradictory to Friere's definition, was put forward by Jane King:

> There is strong evidence that programs and individual projects are more successful when the interest to learn is combined with the opportunity to use the fruits of this learning for concrete ends, such as improvement in the yield of crops or the increase in earnings in town employment through further education, including literacy; in other words, when non-formal education is seen as a means to economic rather than purely cultural or social ends.[1]

Both these authors seem to be saying that learning and knowledge is a powerful force when an individual is allowed to participate in an equitable manner.

Categories of Learning

As young people grow and develop they are constantly learning both within and outside of their family structure. For discussion this learning can be categorized into three main divisions.

Informal Learning

Informal learning is the process by which individuals acquire their values, beliefs, behaviours and standards as they grow and develop. This learning stems from the family, which relates traditional skills and attitudes as well as

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[1] Jane King, Planning Non-Formal Education in Tanzania, African Research Monographs 16 (International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO, 1967), p. 40.

defines present acceptable behaviour, and from peers, who provide behavioural information outside of the family. Other sources of informal learning are radio and television, the marketplace and almost any place where an individual interacts with others.

Formal Learning

Formal learning is defined as learning acquired within a formally structured educational process. The individual enters at a specific point and moves through a series of steps, each one building on the previous. This learning is academic as well as technical depending on which type of program or institution is involved. Completion of a program of studies results in a certification or formal status being attached to the individual.

Non-Formal Learning

Non-formal learning is "an organized educational activity outside the established formal system -- whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity -- that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives."[1] Examples of non-formal education are adolescent and adult literacy classes, health education programs, leadership workshops, agricultural train-

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[1] Philip H. Coombs, New Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth (New York: International Council for Education Development, 1973), p. 11.

ing for farmers, social animation programs and many aspects of community development work.

One of the characteristics of non-formal education is that it should be flexible and able to adapt to changing needs and situations. Non-formal education can be an effective instrument in development plans in the following ways:

1. Identifies new areas of concern.

2. Is able to deal with education problems rapidly -- even with illiterate populations.

3. Allows education to reach dispersed populations.

4. Effectively works with rural poor and uneducated.

5. Works well with agricultural problems which require much attention in rural areas.[1]

Non-formal education can best be characterized by its orientation towards needs as opposed to maintenance of an established structure. Coombs has defined what he calls "minimum essential learning needs" which are "educational needs which should be fulfilled by all boys and girls before they reach adulthood."[2] Coombs also advances some broad categories which would make up this "minimum package".

a. Positive attributes toward co-operation in family and community.

b. Functional literacy and numeracy sufficient to read a newspaper, understand written instructions, and

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[1] Marvin Grandstaff, Alternatives in Education: A Summary View of Research and Analysis on the Concept of Non-Formal Education (Michigan State University, 1974), p.

[2] Philip H. Coombs, op. cit., p. 13.

perform simple calculations, related to their work.

c. A scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the process of nature; for example, in health and sanitation or raising of crops and animals.

d. Functional knowledge and skills for raising a family and operating a household. This should include basic knowledge of health, nutrition, child care and home management.

e. Functional knowledge and skills for earning a living; skills for a particular occupation as well as knowledge of a variety of secondary skills which will be useful.

f. Functional knowledge and skills for civic participation such as knowledge of national history, ideology and basic human rights.[1]

Non-formal education is not to be seen as a replacement for the formal education system. It can be a supplementary but separate activity which reaches youth not reached by the formal system or to continue providing learning where the formal system leaves off. The present school system was designed for urban-centered economies of the industrial nations and is not well suited to the rural-centered economies of developing countries. Many developing countries are beginning to make use of non-formal system again (rural youth clubs in villages, social animation, adult literacy training). "Since both formal and non-formal systems have some advantages, the future may see a hybrid of the two to provide a new type of educational experience."[2]

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[1] Ibid., p. 15.

[2] A. Gillette, "Cuba's School in the Countryside: An Innovative Hybrid," Training for Agriculture (Rome: FAO, 1972), p. 16.

The non-formal education system has been described. The next step seems to be to relate this educational system to some of the problem areas in rural development -- employment, existing educational systems, migration, and the strengthening of attitudes towards the rural sector. Because the formal schooling system has not been meeting the needs of the rural population, many of these critical development factors have been affected by it.

Limitations of the Formal Education System

The system of formal schooling presently being utilized is presenting problems and there is considerable dialogue on the subject. Some educational planners have said that formal educational programs should be cut back so as to produce only as many graduates as there are opportunities. Other planners say the problem is in the type of education being provided; there is too much emphasis on rote learning rather than on relevant material such as rural skills.[1] However, if education becomes completely geared towards skill training, it also limits its potential.

If education was designed to function strictly as a supplier of people for fixed positions, it would become very directive and elitist. A restructuring of the economy, how-

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[1] Archibald Callaway, Educational Planning and Unemployed Youth (Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO, 1971), p. 13.

ever, would allow more opportunities to more people and the use of labor intensive methods would allow people more flexibility in the application of their education to the available opportunities.

Another approach to the problem of lack of opportunity for graduates of the formal system is to take no action at all. If nothing is done to solve the crisis, the jobless educated youth will revise their expectations and become involved with less preferred employers. The argument is that the more jobs which are created to solve the crisis, the larger the flow of youth into the job market. This may be true if development is centered in urban areas. If development, however, is spread into the rural areas, the rural occupations created might become attractive to educated youth from rural areas and reduce the rush on urban jobs.[1]

In order to accomplish the creation of more and better employment opportunities for young people, it is generally accepted that there must be a restructuring of the economy as well as a reformulation of the educational process. The non-formal education system therefore sees its natural role as providing knowledge and skills which will more closely reflect the situation which youth will encounter when finishing school.

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[1] Ibid., p. 30.

Role of Non-Formal Education in Rural Development

Non-formal education has a vital role in the restructuring of educational priorities. Jane King has noted that non-formal education provides a learning experience which has proven to be effective in creating both general awareness and specific skills.[1] There are many examples of non-formal education programs providing skills to non-school youth who would have otherwise received no training. In other areas non-formal education has supplemented school dropouts or school youth with practical training which facilitated their employment or performance in a profession. Non-formal education does not contradict the revised premise of the formal system that education must equip pupils to alter their society. Many non-formal programs, such as the Paulo Friere Method[2] (literacy and awareness training), Ashton-Warner Literacy Method[3] (functional literacy) and some types of simulation games,[4] concentrate not only on having students

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[1] Jane King, op. cit.

[2] Thomas Saunders, op. cit.

[3] Jock Gunter, Ashton-Warner Literacy Method, Technical Note No. 5 (Amherst, Mass.: Center for International Education, University of Mass.).

[4] William A. Smith, Concientizacao and Simulation Games, Technical Note No. 2 Amherst, Mass.: Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts).

acquire reading and writing skills, but also on making them critically aware of their position in society and the opportunities open to them to change it. Many educational programs that stress a "learn-by-doing" approach often succeed in greatly enhancing feelings of self-worth and accomplishment, which are vital elements of further awareness. When utilized, programs of this type have also proven to be practical learning experiences.

> In the early 1900's Seaman Knapp had shown that the farmer learns more about new farming methods by his actual participation, involvement and trying of recommendations on his farm in his own environment.[1]

Non-formal programs which try to use real life problems and examples to promote learning have proven to be simple and effective. With this approach to training, a whole new type of learning is possible which allows youth and adults alike to utilize their existing resources for the betterment of themselves and their communities. In this regard, Byrne has said: "The most readily available, low cost, efficient classroom... the farmer's field..., is rarely used."[2] Non-formal education can act to produce positive attitudes towards the rural sector by creating realistic expectations for

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[1] Russel Kleis, Case Studies in Non-Formal Education Study Team Reports, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Mich., 1974, p. 49.

[2] F.C. Byrnes and K.J. Byrnes, "Agricultural Extension and Education in Developing Countries," in Rural Development in a Changing World, ed. by R. Weitz (M.I.T. Press, 1972), p. 329.

young people.

Expectations and Role Models in the Rural Sector

Many times in the past, formal education has created such a diversity of expectations that the actual learning process was often a secondary consideration. In a study in Malaysia, the following contradictions were discovered. The administrators and planners of an educational program wanted a broadly based curriculum, i.e., school should assist in national development which is basically rural. This implies a rural orientation and support of rural skills. The teachers wanted to prepare students for passing exams into secondary school. Their reputations depended on how many students they passed so this was the main emphasis in school and it was accomplished by rote learning. The parents saw school as learning English and viewed it as a main element of social mobility. They did not want to see the youth learning about rural activities. This situation tended to promote elitism in the school which was in sharp contrast to the egalitarianism which traditionally existed in the homes.

This combination of forces in Malaysia may foster larger dropout rates and unemployment for the graduates. Education, however, has had some impact on the local populations. Fathers who were classified as high achieving (completed primary school and were "open to new ideas") viewed education in the broader context of individual betterment, not as preparation for a clerical job. Those fathers classi-

fied as lower achieving (not finishing primary school and being rather resistant to change) had a rather narrow image of education and saw it as a means to a city job and a large wage income.[1]

This example points out quite clearly the need for successful educational models and realistic expectations in the rural area. If development occurs in the villages, youth and adults will begin to see village centered activities as desirable and begin to identify their future goals with them. Youth are actively searching for role models and will identify with modelsin the rural area which provide a viable alternative to migration to the urban area. If viable role models are available, more youth will opt for the rural life thus preserving a larger portion of committed and talented youth in the rural area.[2]

Some Opportunities Provided by Non-Formal Education

Once development begins in a rural area and the educational process creates a rural orientation, there is still a large educational job to be done. Clearly farmers, artisans and small-scale industrialists cannot teach their children and apprentices practical skills which they do not themselves

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[1] J.M. Seymour, "The Rural School as an Acculturing Institution, The Iban of Malaysia," Human Organization, No. 3, Vol. 33 (Fall, 1974).

[2] Fred Mahler, "The Adolescent and Moral Choices," International Scoial Science Journal, Vol. XXIV.

possess. Therefore assistance to raise the technical performance of adults through agricultural extension or short courses will eventually help these adult and young learners. This is an indirect means of helping youth -- to raise the skills of fathers and masters (and thus make their work more profitable) is to help sons and apprentices.[1]

Therefore, although the original philosophy of many extension type youth programs was to teach skills to youth so they would be passed on to parents, to some extent the reverse is also true. Non-formal education activities with youth may in fact be the catalyst which generates increased interest in learning among adults who could then partially take over the educative role of youth in the area of their particular skill. Non-formal education for youth could represent the break-out point which can act to stimulate development of self-employment activities in the rural area. It could also provide a source of training for youth involved in wage employment opportunities produced as a result of development in rural areas. This pattern will be applicable to school and non-school youth and considering the substantial number of dropouts, this problem is critical. Callaway has made some suggestions of how non-formal programs could help with this problem.

> The problem of helping rural school leavers, then, is not only to provide vocational training but also to have an associated plan to help them get established

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[1] Archibald Callaway, op. cit., p. 38.

> in rural occupations. Eventually patterns will emerge which school leavers will recognize as the steps for successful rural careers.[1]

The majority of the authors quoted see the necessity of restructuring present educational and economic systems to provide more emphasis on giving youth a chance to participate meaningfully in the development of their own communities and societies.

We have considered to this point the issues facing rural youth as well as some of the process which may be utilized to alleviate the conflict associated with these issues. As a next step it will be important to look at the specific categories of rural youth and their needs.

Categories of Rural Youth

Since the present education system has not provided equal opportunities for training rural youth, there are distinct categories of rural youth, each with particular and different learning needs.

1. Non-school youth -- These are youth who have not attended any formalized training institution. In many countries this category is mostly composed of girls who are often denied formal schooling. This group of youth must be provided with some form of basic life education as well as skills and knowledge to obtain a

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[1] Ibid., p. 38.

living. The learning must be rural oriented to allow them to function more effectively in the rural setting where they will probably remain. Non-formal programs of extension education and functional literacy should provide a relevant learning experience in a rural setting.

2. School dropouts -- The number of youth who do not finish their formal education is high in developing countries. The highest level of dropout occurs after the first level (primary school). This can be attributed to the lack of secondary school facilities to accommodate all primary school graduates, and in some countries, financial limitations are also important. The level of dropouts in various developing countries can be seen in Table 1. In this table the dropout rate of girls is higher than boys, again emphasizing that education for girls is not considered of great importance in most developing countries. These school dropouts usually have some level of literacy which can be of advantage in structuring continuing education experiences. Depending on the level at which youth drop out of school, they will have been influenced to some extent towards migration out of the rural sector. This creates an especially difficult situation as these youth have less marketable skills than school graduates (who also have difficulty finding urban jobs), but have become somewhat dissatisfied with the rural sector and had

TABLE 1

DROPOUT RATES AT THE FIRST LEVEL IN SELECTED DEVEOPING COUNTRIES

Country	No. of Years in Period[2]	No. of Years in First Level	Overall Total	Dropout Rate	
				Male	Female
			%	%	%
Africa					
Algeria	1963-67	6	62.9	60.6	70.2
Botswana	1966-67	7	71.2	61.6	77.3
Burundi	1966-67	6	59.8	56.1	68.3
Chad	1965-68	6	81.3	NA	NA
Libya	1965-66	6	54.5	46.7	72.3
Mali	1962-67	5	27.9	NA	NA
Morocco	1963-67	5	43.9	NA	NA
Togo	1967-68	6	34.7	28.6	47.8
Upper Volta	1963-67	6	55.1	53.3	58.9
Asia					
Cambodia	1963-64	6	64.0	56.1	77.4
India	1963-64	5	54.9	52.5	59.3
Iran	1966-67	6	22.1	21.1	24.4
Malaysia (West)	1960-67	6	15.5	NA	NA
Thailand	1962-66	4	17.9	NA	NA
Latin America					
Bolivia	1963-68	6	80.0	NA	NA
Ecuador	1961-67	6	62.8	61.7	64.2
Guatemala	1962-68	6	74.7	75.1	74.3
Honduras	1963-68	6	82.0	NA	NA
Paraguay	1963-68	6	68.4	68.4	68.4

Note: In this table the dropout rates for different countries are not strictly comparable because of the difference in systems of recording and reporting demographic and enrolment statistics and varying grade-spans for first-level education.

NA Not available.

[1] Dropout rate has been calculated by following a cohort of first-graders to the end of the cycle and counting as dropouts all who have left school without completing the cycle.

[2] In cases where statistics for a full span of first-cycle years have not been available, the dropout rates have been estimated on the basis of observations for a more limited time as indicated in each case.[1]

[1] Philip H. Coombs, New Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth (New York: International Council for Education Development, 1973), pp. 33-34.

their expectations raised about an urban life-style. Educational experiences for these youth should not be restricted to agricultural training but expanded to include other trades and skills useful in rural centers. The overall rural orientation should be present in all educational experiences.

3. Youth attending secondary school or higher levels of education -- This group of youth has achieved some level of training beyond the primary level. As past trends have shown, they are almost sure not to remain in the rural area. A serious effort must be made to preserve some segment of this talent in the rural area. These youth can be involved in out-of-school activities while they are attending school. This external learning experience will increase their awareness and knowledge of the rural area and strengthen their ties to it. These youth can play leading roles in rural industry if they remain in the rural sector. As mentioned previously, one of the conditions of retaining this group of youth is that reasonable opportunities for employment must be created in the rural area.

These broad categories of youth represent the clientele towards which non-formal education programs must be directed. Across all of these categories the participation of girls is substantially less than that of boys. In many developing countries the accepted role for girls and women is as homemakers and these skills are thought to be easily learned at

home. Most training received by girls is geared towards strengthening only this role; while little attention is given to agricultural training. Considering these characteristics and needs of rural youth, there are several types of non-formal programs which have been developed to serve rural youth.

Types of Non-Formal Youth Program in Rural Areas

Considering the wide categories of youth and the diverse cultural backgrounds from which they come, there have been many varied types of non-formal programs developed for rural youth. In addition to providing an approach which stresses the inherent benefits and strengths of the rural sector, these programs acknowledge the following further needs of farm youth:

(a) A theoretical knowledge about agriculture and homemaking.

(b) Practical experience in farm work.

(c) Technical knowledge of agriculture and rural industry.

(d) Understanding the need for more knowledge-continuous learning.

(e) Leadership and management skills applicable to the rural area.

The following types of non-formal youth programs can be

identified.

Individual Training Forms

This can be exemplified by an apprenticeship program for youth. This type of training provides a personalized and continuous learning experience which usually leads directly to a trade. The personalized aspect allows the learning to take place in an atmosphere not dissimilar to that of the family.[1] The limitation of this type of training is the lack of skilled adult trainers in the rural area. The use of mass media methods (V.T.R., radio listening clubs) may have potential in providing training for individuals in a specific skill.

Organized Youth Groups or Clubs

This type of decentralized youth organization is common in developing countries and is funded by governmental and non-governmental organizations. Some examples are as follows:

1. Agricultural Extension Youth Programs

This is the most common type of youth program; it is usually organized under the Agricultural Extension Service. These programs are for boys and girls 10 to 25 years and are centered around agricultural or homemaking projects carried

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[1] W.H. Wriggins and James Guyot, Population, Politics and the Future of South Asia (New York: Columbia University Press, 1973).

out individually or in groups. Lessons and demonstrations related to the project are given by the extension agent. The emphasis is placed on learning-by-doing as members are guided in carrying out their own project. An important element of this program is that the youth are drawn together by their interest in a particular agricultural or homemaking project but also receive a great deal of leadership and citizenship training. These programs also act to promote awareness of the rural sector through their recreational, social and cultural activities. Volunteer adult leaders are involved to provide a link between the extension service and the community. Both school and non-school youth attend these clubs.

2. School Related Training Programs

These programs are available to youth attending schools and involve extra-curricular activities in an agriculturally based club. The teachers usually conduct lessons in agriculture and homemaking and use the clubs to provide practical experience. Members have small projects outside of school and work on them outside of school hours. The schooling is the regular academic program with some agriculture or homemaking subjects. These clubs are not as popular as those not directly linked to the school. Often the projects become associated with school and are seen as a punishment rather than a learning experience. The Kenya Young Farmers Club is an example of a successful program.

3. Community Level Youth Training Courses

These are training programs for youth carried out in local youth training centers or village polytechnics where youth are instructed in agriculture and other trades by professional staff. This type of training must remain practical; however, often it tends to become too formal without enough practical demonstration. Sports and other recreational activities are used to create interest in the centers. The courses are usually designed to cover a specific time period. These centers can be readily moved from village to village in order to allow greater access to the courses offered.

4. Centralized Youth Training Facilities

Youth are brought to a central training facility for a specific period of time. The courses usually provide intensive training in a specific subject (e.g., animal husbandry, handicrafts) with the youth returning to their farms on completion. This type of training no doubt increases skill in a particular area but it lacks continuity and support on the local level.

5. National Youth Service

These are schemes which have the objective of providing young people with employment on national work schemes. An example would be the Education Corps in Iran or the Opportunities for Youth in Canada. This program would be

aimed at school and college graduates who did not find other employment on graduation.[1]

These are some of the various designs of non-formal education programs for youth. The type chosen by each country depends on the situation of the youth and the needs of the country. However, the importance of non-formal education in the rural sector and the urgent necessity of including rural youth as an important element of any non-formal education program, is clearly indicated in the above description.

The next section of the thesis will describe in detail a non-formal education program for rural youth which was recently developed in Iraq. This detailed example will allow a more concrete understanding of the non-formal education process by showing how a developing country adapted the philosophy to its own needs.

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[1] Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Some Principles of Rural Youth Program Design, Program Planning ESR, YWDD/70/3 (Rome: FAO, May, 1970).

CHAPTER III

THE RURAL YOUTH PROGRAM IN THE REPUBLIC OF IRAQ

Iraq -- The Country

Physical (Structure)

Iraq is a diverse country which encompasses the ancient region of Mesopotamia, the "cradle of civilization". Iraq was the site of the first known city state (Ur, 3,200 B.C.) and was also the first place where agricultural cultivation was practised (Jarmo). The geography of the country is highlighted by two major rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates, which form the boundaries of ancient Mesopotamia and flow into the Persian Gulf. The north of Iraq is mountainous with the terrain softening into rolling hills as one moves south. The southern two-thirds of the country is a dryland plain and desert. The northern area supports lush pastures and cereal crops and has a large cattle and goat population. The north central plain is the major cereal producing area with some irrigated specialty crops. The southern section between the two major rivers is mainly irrigated agriculture which produces the majority of the country's fruits and vegeas well as dates (the major agricultural export). The southwest section of Iraq is a large arid plain which merges with the Arabian Desert. This area supports a large portion of

the country's sheep population which are raised by nomadic herdsmen.

The population of eight million is divided between the Arabic speaking majority of six million and the Kurdish and Turkish speaking people of the north. The life-styles and type of agriculture varies considerably throughout the country. The people of the south and central regions generally live in scattered housing units constructed of mud. There are large village centers for commerce and trade but most people live on their own land. In the north, most people live in small villages in houses constructed of stone; they travel back and forth to their cultivated land.

Iraq is a diverse country with a tremendous development potential. The soil is productive when cultivated properly and there is a great potential for irrigation.

Social and Cultural Factors

The social system in Iraq is related to the physical and demographic structure of the country. The contrast between the Arabic and Kurdish people causes them to have individual social systems. Most of the cultural differences between the two groups are religious differences although some are based on geographic location. While the majority of the Arab population is of the Islamic faith, a somewhat larger proportion of the Kurdish and Turkish population is Christian. Since the Islamic religion is predominant in Iraq, the following description deals with the Islamic social

system.

There are two major divisions of Moslems, the Shia and the Sunni, of which the southern centered Shias are the largest group. A great deal of the peasants' time is taken up by religious observances; this has a very real impact on labor supply at certain times of the year. The Moslem religion is perhaps the most powerful imposer of sanctions among the peasant population. There is strong pressure from superiors and peers to live one's life according to laws of Islam as laid down in the Islamic holy book, the Koran.

The formal organization of roles occurs within a system of large, closely knit extended family units, which are also connected to a larger system of tribes. The tribal heads exert considerable formal and informal power in local government and religious affairs. Within the family unit the father has the formal position of power; however, the woman does exert considerable informal power along with the children, in financial and household management and even in some areas of agriculture. Communication with the formal tribal system or with external sources is directed through the father as the formal family head. Social rank within a tribe or family is based on age and experience. Younger members of the family do not often have a formal role in the decision making process, although there are some possible informal inputs towards improvement of the family's means of livelihood. Women in almost all situations have a low social rank and the sanctions applied to them by family and tribal members

are severe by Western standards.

According to Moslem law and tradition, the activities and life-style of women have been very restricted. Women have some informal authority within families but the society as a whole restricts their roles. In the rural areas particularly, women have a definite role to play in agricultural production, spending a great deal of time tending livestock and cultivating and harvesting vegetable and fruit crops. The men and boys are involved with the irrigation and marketing of crops. Young girls have a particularly low status as they do not have the age and experience of their mothers. Since their mothers are required to cook meals as well as do agricultural work, girls are allocated many agricultural activities.

Because of the restrictions placed on women and girls, it is difficult for agricultural extension workers to work effectively with them. In planning programs for young girls and women, emphasis has always been placed on improving their homemaking and handicraft skills. Although these are important skills, much progress could be made in agricultural production if women and girls were given practical training in the relevant areas of agriculture. This training in the short run will have to be done by female extension workers which only recently appeared in Iraq. Although some progress was made with training for girls the major emphasis in this thesis is on agricultural training for boys. A more detailed discussion of the problems and potentials of women

and girls is certainly worthy of further research but is beyond the scope of this thesis.

One of the important elements which exists throughout the country is the strong spirit of cooperation within tribal units. These tribal units can contain as few as one or two villages or up to fifteen to twenty. Cooperative projects are readily accepted at the village level as a natural activity of a particular tribe. One reason for this attitude may be described by citing a comment of a village elder: "Collective work is the best.... It has been learned and adopted from the Arabs of ancient times."[1] Cooperative projects which are on too large a scale sometimes are not successful as the spirit of cooperation does not always exist outside a tribal unit.

The majority of adults cannot read or write as they have not been involved in any formal educational programs. This is an important consideration in extension programs which presently make use of printed material. Many youths who learn to read and write at school loose these skills when they return to their homes because of lack of practice. This is an example of the type of information of which educational planners must be aware, as the situation may change from region to region or country to country.

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[1] R.I. Andrews, Faisel Al-Shaikh, Assim I. Nusaif, "Interview with Village Elder from Southern Iraq," in "Survey of Sadiq Program in Republic of Iraq" (Unpublished Research Paper Produced by FOA/FFHC Project TF IRQ4 DEN, Baghdad, 1974).

The physical and social structures of Iraq are unique and determine to a large extent the way in which rural development projects are structured. When designing programs to deal with this social system it is necessary to examine the government structure as it relates to Agricultural Extension and more specifically, to rural youth.

The Structure of Government Agriculture Services to Rural Iraq

Agricultural Extension Service

There are several government departments working with educational programs which affect rural youth, the Extension Service being one of the more active in the area of non-formal education. This program has a large field staff (764 persons, 1974) who conduct educational and service programs for farmers. One of their main extension tools is the use of field demonstrations in farmers fields with field crops and vegetables; these demonstrations incorporate the use of modern inputs such as fertilizers and insecticides. Extension agents are also the vehicle through which government farm programs are passed on to the farmer. The role of the extension worker is to generate educational and developmental programs related to agricultural production and based on the needs of a particular district or region. These workers should also be carrying information on necessary research back to the appropriate research organizations. When the

Rural Youth Program became part of the Extension Service, it provided another vehicle by which demonstrations and agricultural instruction could reach the farm family.

Agricultural Cooperatives

The Agrarian Reform Law of 1959 was a land reform bill which divided large tracts of land into small units (20 hectares) and gave it to individual farm families. The farmers who received the land were obliged by law to join an agricultural cooperative. In 1974, there were 1,310 cooperative societies with 1,305 cooperative agents, who were government employees, trained in agriculture. The objectives of these cooperative societies is to provide credit, marketing, agricultural inputs, and machinery rental facilities to allow a farmer to be more productive on his small holding. The cooperative agent is an administrator and manager of the cooperative society and he provides some degree of agricultural training as well. Recently, the Extension Service has become more involved in the cooperatives, and has been planning educational programs centered around the production plans of specific cooperatives.

Ten percent of the funds generated in the cooperative society must be directed towards educational and social programs related to all members of the society. This fund could become a natural support for the Rural Youth Programs in the cooperative societies. At present, about one-half of the Rural Youth Centers are organized in cooperative societies.

Home Economics Program

When the Rural Youth Program for boys was established and proved successful, some exploratory work in this area was begun with young girls. The work was established in three villages and groups of young girls were collected and began simple handicraft projects. They were given lectures on health, nutrition and child care, and carried out practical demonstrations of simple homemaking and agricultural skills. The girls also started simple agricultural projects such as vegetable gardens and poultry raising. This modest beginning has now become part of a larger Home Economics and Demonstration Program which has recently been established in the Agricultural Extension Department. This department will in the future provide agricultural and homemaking skills to rural women and girls.

Farmers' Societies

This is a prominent element in rural Iraq and consists of groups of local leaders from a village or district who are in contact with the government on matters of agricultural policy. It is meant to act as an advisory and feedback mechanism as well as an implementation tool in relations between the government and the farmer. In many villages, leaders from the Farmers' Society are also involved in the Rural Youth Program. The Farmers' Society supports the local Rural Youth Program but provides no real educational inputs.

In many cases, leaders for the Farmers' Society are

selected on a political basis. In many areas, however, there are strong local leaders who are not members of the political party presently in power. In cases such as this, the strong local leaders are left in power which allows the government to benefit from whatever advances are made under these local leaders. The leaders are given no specific training and their position of leadership are usually based on family background or religious characteristics.

These four elements of the rural sector of Iraq play important roles in the Rural Youth Program; a more detailed description of the organizational structure is contained in the rest of this chapter.

The Rural Youth Program and the Government Structure

The Rural Youth Program in Iraq is under the jurisdiction of the Agricultural Extension Services and forms a part of the workload of the Agricultural Extension agents. The Agricultural Extension Department is part of the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform and has been designated as the department which will provide education services to the rural areas. It works through the services and programs being operated by the various technical departments in the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform. The following page (Figure 1) contains a schematic design of the structure of the Ministry.

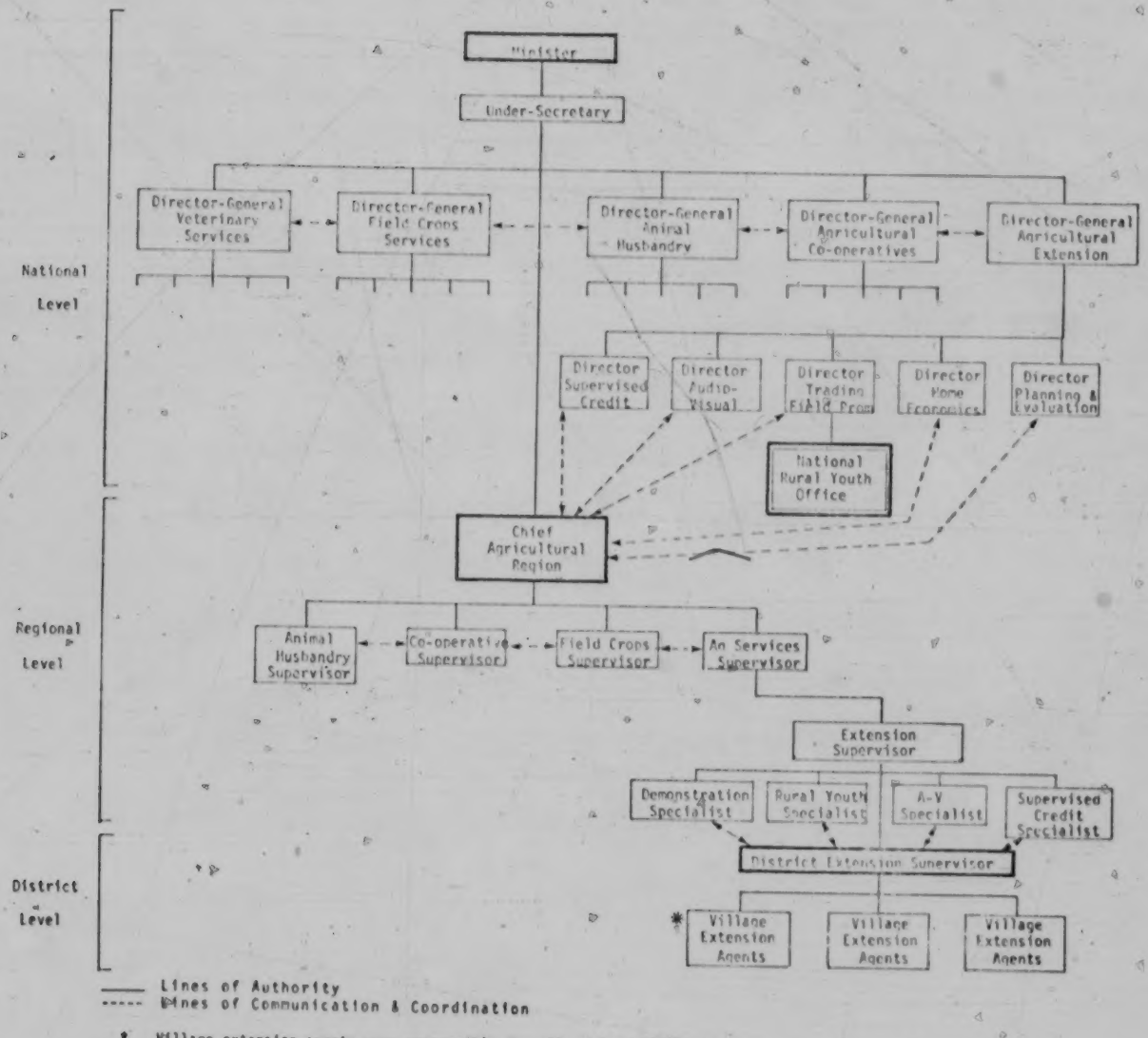
The Rural Youth Section is under the Division of Training and Field Demonstrations which is one of the five divisions under the Director-General of Extension. The other divisions are Supervised Credit, Audio Visual, Home Economics and Planning and Evaluation. These divisions provide the national policy and administrative support for the supervisors and extension agents in the field.

In each of Iraq's 16 provinces there is an agricultural office with a chief for all the agricultural services provided by the Ministry. Under this chief there are several divisions, the important ones being the Division of Cooperatives, the Division of Agricultural Services, and the Division of Field Crops. In the Agricultural Services Division there is a general extension supervisor as well as subject matter specialists for the following programs: Rural Youth, Demonstrations, Audio Visual and Supervised Credit. These subject matter specialists work with the district supervisors and extension agents who are activating these programs at the village level. In each province there are several district offices from which the extension agents operate their village programs. These district offices usually are headed by a district extension supervisor who handles all the extension programs.

The Rural Youth Specialist from the provincial level works with the District Extension Supervisor and often with the extension agent who is in direct contact with a Rural Youth Center. An extension agent should spend about 10-15

FIGURE 1

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE IRAQ MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND AGRARIAN REFORM



* Village extension agents were responsible for all subject matter areas.

percent of his time with Rural Youth work. The Rural Youth Specialist supervises the Rural Youth work in the province as a whole and is the contact with the national Rural Youth office and other subject matter divisions of the provincial office. He provides material support and administrative assistance to the extension agents.

The two major divisions within the Ministry are the production oriented Agricultural Cooperatives Division and the education, training and service oriented Agricultural Services Division. Since the national plan calls for all farmers to be organized into cooperative societies, this is the main production unit as well as the unit through which education and training occurs. To this end, there is presently a plan being enacted to establish an agricultural extension center to serve two or three cooperative societies. These centers would be staffed by extension agents, home economics agents, rural social workers and possibly some health personnel. These village level workers would concentrate their program within the cooperative society to coincide with and supplement the cooperative's production and development plans. These centers would allow the village level workers to concentrate their work in one area and would give them easy access to the facilities required to carry out their work. These centers would be the beginning of a coordination of government services which would see agricultural extension, rural youth, home economics and literacy extended to the village population as a unit. It would be

out of these centers that the Rural Youth Program would be generated. The extension staff of the center would work to establish a Rural Youth Center in each cooperative society in order to provide a complete service to the farm family. This "Center" would be a group of youth or a club around which activities are organized.

The number of agricultural personnel working in extension is growing all the time. In December of 1973, the numbers were the following:

Agricultural Extension Agents and Supervisors:

Secondary School Graduates	623
College Graduates	141
TOTAL	764

The number of rural families contacted by one field worker varies greatly depending on the types of programs they are operating. There are approximately 500,000 farm families in Iraq, covered by 764 extension agents, leaving a theoretical number of 650 farm families to each worker. In reality this number is lower as many of these families are beyond the reach of present government services and there is no contact with them (desert nomadic people).

The Rural Youth Program has been one of the first field programs to try to fully utilize the agricultural services and facilities available to the village people. The Rural Youth Program is organized within existing cooperative societies or Farmers' Societies. They use the existing buildings in the village and involve the local leaders and other

government officials in the establishing of new centers or clubs.

The philosophy of project work in the Rural Youth Centers is to bring available government services to the village level, where it can be more effectively utilized. For example, the district veterinarians are used to solve disease and management problems which occur in the animal husbandry projects, the plant protection office may be called on to provide information and material for the control of insects and disease in field crops and vegetable projects. In some centers, the youth are shown health films and the local health officials provide some routine medical checks and vaccinations.

Several of the centers are teaching literacy to their members. This is sometimes done by the extension agent himself and sometimes by the staff of the cooperative society. The achievement of literacy in the rural areas is a major goal of government.

The Rural Youth Centers are linked to the schools in some areas; the members use the buildings for meetings and teachers are involved in the organization of some activities. In spite of this link with the formal school system, the Rural Youth Program is basically an out-of-school, non-formal educational program. The education occurs as a part of a larger objective of increased agricultural production and rural development.

The organizational structure of the Rural Youth Program

is designed to promote the objective of enhancing the knowledge and appreciation of rural life among rural youth. The next section of this chapter will give a more detailed description of the design, objectives and structure of the Rural Youth Program in Iraq.

Organization and Development of the Rural Youth Program

Historical Background

The Rural Youth Program in Iraq is under the direction of the Department of Agricultural Extension and is called the "Sadiq Center Program for Rural Youth". Sadiq is an Arabic word meaning friend and companionship and was thought to represent an important principle of the program.

The original thought about the program came from interested government officials who formed a committee in 1967 to look into the subject of non-formal agricultural education for rural young people, especially for those not attending school. This committee then made contact with representatives of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. A project was designed by F.A.O. and the government officials in Iraq and was submitted to the Freedom from Hunger Committee (F.F.H.C.) of F.A.O. This department solicits support from various donor countries for rural development projects in the Third World. The project from Iraq was accepted by the Freedom from Hunger Committee

and donor funds were obtained from Denmark for a two-year project. The project was titled "Development of Rural Youth Clubs in the Republic of Iraq" and was to be staffed by one F.A.O. staff member in addition to local government staff.

With the assistance of the FAO/FFHC project, Sadiq was made an official government program in Iraq in 1969. The government was interested in the Sadiq concept and the number of Sadiq Centers grew from the original three experimental clubs to approximately 100 centers throughout Iraq by 1974.

Some of the prevailing factors which prompted the development of the Sadiq Program were:

1. An increasing rural-to-urban migration as farm families became dissatisfied with their life in the agricultural area.
2. Under the new Agrarian Reform Law of 1959-60, large tracts of land under one owner were divided and many farmers were settled on small farms and organized into cooperative societies. This resulted in a great number of farmers who required training in agricultural methods, planning and decision making. When this land had been under single ownership there were a smaller number of managers to educate.
3. Although about 70 percent of the youth in the rural areas had a chance to attend school, about 60 percent of this number did not continue after primary school. There was a need to provide some type of training to

those youth who had "dropped out" of the formal education system at a time when they were becoming highly productive.

There was a need then for an agriculturally oriented training program to allow rural youth a more active participation in the development of rural Iraq. More specifically, it was hoped the Sadiq Program would fulfill the following roles in the Rural Development Program:

1. Provide training in improved agricultural methods to young people who will work in agriculture in the future.
2. Provide youth with training in the principles of cooperation and community development which would assist in the organization of farmers into cooperative societies and collective farms (which is a major policy objective of the government).
3. The training received through Sadiq in leadership, self-help and responsibility would be valuable to youth even if they chose to work in industry in the cities or towns.
4. The Sadiq Program would become a vital element of the agricultural extension program by assisting in and speeding up the transfer of improved methods and ideas to the farm family. This transfer has the objective of increasing agricultural production and improving the living conditions of the rural family.
5. Sadiq Centers would provide an attraction to all

youth, in school and non-school as it offers activity in a familiar subject, agriculture, and provides some financial return.

6. Members of a Sadiq Center would come together as a group and through recreation, films, trips and tours become more aware of their way of life and begin to see the benefit of agriculture as a future way of life.

7. The knowledge which members receive in their learn-by-doing projects would provide a basic understanding of how to use the agricultural facilities which exist in their own village to increase production and improve their level of living.

8. The Sadiq Centers would create an attitude of self-reliance among young people by strengthening their confidence in their roles in the rural sector and by encouraging innovative approaches in the solving of problems in their daily lives.

This section has provided a general description of the reasons why there was a need for a rural youth program in Iraq. The following sections of this chapter will outline specifically the objectives and operation of the Sadiq Center Program.

Design of Sadiq Center Program

The Sadiq Program is an agricultural education program for rural youth between the ages of 10 and 18. The youth are formed into groups and usually meet in some central faci-

lity in their village. The agricultural extension agent organizes the center in the initial stages but also solicits the help of local adult leaders. Members meet regularly and are given instruction in agricultural skills by the extension agents.

Each member of a Sadiq Center is involved in some type of project, either individually or as part of a group. Some of the projects being carried on are vegetable production, cereal crops, poultry raising, beekeeping, calf feeding, silkworms and fruit tree nurseries. Youth are also taught basic skills which are important to agriculture and rural life in general; for example, tractor driving, cultivation methods, functional literacy, vaccination of farm animals, use of sprayers, pruning of fruit trees, reforestation, nutrition requirements of a family, etc. At their regular meetings members receive regular technical information on how to proceed with their projects. The members either own their projects individually (e.g., a flock of chickens) or share the results of a group project (e.g., a field of corn).

The skills learned in the center may be the result of a few demonstrations held in the club and practised by members. Many of the projects are started by teaching the members skills related to the project. As the number of learned skills increases, a project is formulated which comprises all the learned skills. An example is a cereal crop project which is made up of the following skills: cultivation methods, fertilizer use, insect and disease control, sprayer

operation, irrigation methods and planting times and procedures.

At present, many centers begin their work with large group projects which involve all the members. As the Sadiq Centers develop and the members become more conscious of the roles of the center, more complex projects are introduced. These projects, such as poultry raising or beekeeping, are taken on by small groups or individuals. It has been found that if projects which are too complex are introduced too rapidly into the village, it often leads to some degree of failure which creates disappointment and loss of enthusiasm for some youth. These general operating procedures for the Sadiq Center Program are based on the overall objectives of the Sadiq Program.

Objectives of the Sadiq Center Program

The preliminary roles of the Sadiq Program were laid by the original committee of government officials in 1967. These roles and concepts were formed into specific objectives as the first field workers introduced the program in the trial rural locations. These workers conducted a basic survey in the specific trial areas to assess the needs, aspirations and resources of the farm families. The workers then began some activities with youth related to the results of the survey. There was a strong response for the program from the adults and youth. The farmers and their sons stressed the need for practical agricultural projects to occupy the

youth's time and to provide them with training for their future roles as farmers or other occupations in the rural or urban sector.

Based on the results achieved in the trial areas and by close monitoring of the progress of various projects in the centers, the following objectives were drawn for the national program:

1. To provide young people in the rural areas with the opportunity to gain some modern agricultural knowledge, to be able to increase their agricultural production, and to provide them and their families with a more comfortable life-style.
2. To demonstrate to young people that by the effective use of available resources and modern agricultural inputs, agriculture can be a profitable means of employment.
3. To show young people through systematically organized agricultural projects that the rural sector has some continuity, and provides a life-style which is attractive.
4. To use the energy and enthusiasm of young people to speed up the adoption of new ideas in the agricultural sector.
5. To involve young people in "learning-by-doing" projects to develop the idea of self-reliance and self-help, which is so important for the strong socialist development of the rural area.

6. To allow rural young people to participate actively in the rapid development occurring in their country.

7. To provide an effective medium by which agricultural agents can work with all members of the farm family.

These objectives are feasible when you consider the situation existing in the rural areas. There are large numbers of rural young people who have leisure time because they do not attend school and their parents' land holding is not large enough to occupy them completely. In many areas the facilities for projects exist -- extra land, water, livestock, feed grain -- but they are not being completely utilized for a variety of reasons. It has been demonstrated that when it can be shown how existing resources of youth can be combined with new skills and some external inputs, the youth are enthusiastic and receptive to the new ideas. An example of this is the poultry project for egg production. Members build a poultry house from palm branches and mud or stone and provide wheat, barley or corn from their farms as feed. The members then are allowed to purchase six week old chickens of a hardy and high producing variety at a reduced price. When this is done, the government provides: a protein concentrate to mix with the grain, some improved but simple feeding equipment, vaccine to protect birds from disease, as well as general veterinary care. These facilities are provided through existing government channels in the field. This project thus involves a promotion of the concept of self-

help as the government inputs are contingent upon the youth fulfilling specific activities for himself.

Influence of Sadiq Program on Rural Youth

The learning-by-doing method has proven to be effective in allowing young people to achieve a sense of satisfaction and responsibility by carrying out a project which is of interest to them.

In a survey of the Sadiq Program conducted in 1973,[1] rural youth in Iraq showed a genuine interest in being involved in an agricultural project. This was true for school and non-school youth. Parents of youth noticed them spending long period of previously leisure time looking after their projects. The dedication and interest which the youth have in their projects is often mentioned by field workers, an example being that youth would often be found crying if one of their chickens was found to be sick or dead.

Both students and youth working on farms can benefit from the Sadiq Program. Youth who become members of the Sadiq Program will also gain an improved community awareness and an understanding of social issues and social attitudes which will be of benefit to them in any profession or life-style.

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[1] R.I. Andrews, Faisel Al-Shaikh, Assim I. Nusaif, "Survey of Sadiq Program in Republic of Iraq" (Unpublished Research Paper Produced by FAO/FFHC Project TF IRQ4 DEN, Baghdad, February, 1974).

Youth with little formal schooling will likely remain in agriculture or at least in the rural sector. The practical agricultural training and leadership development they receive will prepare them for their future roles as farmers, farm leaders and community members. The involvement of non-students in Sadiq programs has been shown to motivate many of them to seek further involvement once they have made simple accomplishments in the Sadiq Center. An example of this is the fact that many of the youth not attending school are among the more active members of the centers, regularly attending meetings and willing to participate in all center activities.

In Iraq, fathers are usually proud of their sons' accomplishments and achievements, thus they often become quite interested and involved in their sons' Sadiq project. In the Sadiq Survey, more than fifty percent of the fathers stated that they had adopted some of the new agricultural methods or varieties which were part of their sons' Sadiq project. This fact lends strong support to the concept of using young people as a vehicle to introduce agricultural modernization into the rural sector.

The Sadiq Survey also showed that when members receive money from the production of their projects, it was used partially for their own personal use (clothes, books, novelties), partially to enlarge their projects or repay credit outstanding on their project, and some was given to the family. Consequently, youth were gaining experience in money

management.

The above mentioned aspects of the Sadiq Program lend support to the objectives of the overall program and provide a framework within which the objectives can be achieved. A critical factor in attaining these objectives is the way in which the program is delivered to the youth. Since Sadiq is a government administered program, the role of the agricultural extension agent is important.

The Role of the Agricultural Extension Agent

The Rural Youth Program uses the technical divisions of the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform for its subject matter information. Often the information and services obtained have to be altered from a production orientation to an educational orientation. This means youth are shown "the reasons why" certain practices increase production and are allowed to try it for themselves. This is opposed to the previous practice of having the government "tell" the farmers how to increase production and expecting them to carry out all the instructions.

Extension agents working with the Sadiq Centers have a guidance manual which allows them to proceed in a step-by-step manner in introducing projects to the Sadiq center. Each project has a series of activities for members to carry out with the extension agent as well as a series of lectures for each progressive stage of the project. The manual stresses the use of teaching aids in presenting information and the

Extension Department has provided a series of 35 mm slides set on specific project activities to assist in the explanation of lessons to youth. The extension agents main role is to act as a facilitator to allow members to learn through their project work and other center activities.

Training for Agricultural Agents and Supervisors

It is of course vital when a new program such as Sadiq is introduced that the staff are given preliminary and follow-up training in the operation of the Sadiq project. To accomplish this in Iraq, a schedule of training was designed as follows:

(a) The Rural Youth Specialists in each province are given training in administrative and supervisory skills.

(b) The field extension agents are given training in the practical implementation of Sadiq projects and methods of working with rural youth. These agents are brought together for in-depth training courses of 7-8 days duration at various regional locations throughout the country.

(c) A regular program of supervisory visits by headquarter staff is part of the on-going training plan. This staff meets with extension agents and supervisors in the field and provides information and demonstrations on project implementation and administration procedures.

There was an atmosphere of continual staff upgrading

developed around the Sadiq Program. Each year there was a new series of training courses set up for each level of training based on past subjects and participants' evaluation of the training.

One of the important roles in the whole training scheme is that of the Rural Youth Specialist who is located in each of the provinces. The specialists provide a focal point on which to begin the training programs in the provinces and they become subject matter specialists passing their knowledge on to the extension agents. The headquarters staff made frequent supervisory visits to the provinces and in cooperation with the Rural Youth Specialist, drew up proposed training programs for the extension agents and local leaders.

At the present stage of development, the extension agent is the central element of most Sadiq Centers. The agents are working towards the development of local leadership among adults and youth, but the government will be directly involved in the Sadiq Centers for some time to come.

Local Leaders in the Sadiq Centers

The use of local leaders in the Sadiq Program is a vital element of its overall success. Local leaders are usually adults living in the area where the center is organized. The ultimate objective would be to have local leaders taking over a major part of the operation of the centers in cooperation with the extension agent who would pro-

vide the technical input and guidance.

In the early stages of development we should be working towards developing simple skills in the local leader. The local leaders can help the extension agent in the following ways:

1. The local leader can act as a legitimizer and allow the extension agent to be more effective in his work by facilitating his contact with youth and adults in the village.
2. Local leaders will always be in the village to deal with the centers problems and to advise the members. The local leaders, however, will have to be trained in the requirements and operation of projects in order to be of some help.
3. Local leaders will know the members of the center more personally and will be able to assist in the selection and supervision of projects.

The concept of volunteer work is new to most Iraqi farmers, especially when it involves a mixed group of youth (from various families and tribes). Most farmers would voluntarily help other members of their family or tribe. If the Sadiq Program can be shown to be a successful and desirable element of village life, some of the village leaders may be convinced that they should become involved to procure these benefits for youth of their tribe. Since tribal feelings will remain strong for some time to come, an attempt to have leaders from the major tribes involved in the village

may help to stimulate a higher level of involvement.

It is a difficult task to develop local leader participation in a rural youth program. There will have to be involvement of government staff to begin a Sadiq Center and to maintain it for some period of time until it is operating independently. The extension worker must always be available to provide technical agricultural information and to promote the various activities of the center.

Specific Activities of the Sadiq Centers

The Sadiq Centers' activities are divided into three main divisions:

1. Agricultural project training -- this involves project instruction and actual work in the project.
2. Agricultural and rural living skill demonstrations -- the extension agents often use materials from their regular demonstration program in the Sadiq Centers. In some centers the members are involved in functional literacy training.
3. Recreation, field tours, excursions, films, etc. -- this is an important part of the program and involves organized team sports, tours to visit the projects of other members, excursions to visit locations of agricultural, historical or cultural significance and films in the center related to agriculture, health, nutrition and history.

These activities are the main core of the Sadiq Center; there

are, however, other elements which contribute to the Sadiq Center Program.

Handicrafts

One aspect of the Sadiq Program is the handicraft project which in some areas has become a secondary activity of Sadiq members. In areas where there is an established local handicraft which is economically feasible, the members can be taught by local teachers. The local teachers are contacted through the extension agent and meet with the youth on a regular basis. They are paid a fee by the Extension Department for their services. This activity provides an additional binding force for the Sadiq Center as well as a learned skill to the members.

The main focus of the Sadiq Program should remain agricultural for the present time with handicrafts or small-scale industry as secondary supporting activities. The orientation of most field workers is agricultural and the communication of this information to the youth occupies the majority of their time. It is also important to establish a strong central emphasis based on agricultural projects before introducing secondary activities. In some cases where agricultural projects were not successful, the government attempted to introduce handicrafts to the area. This system was found not to work since there was no local supporting background for them; it is more feasible to attempt to more effectively utilize the existing agricultural resources in

the area. Handicrafts do have an important role but they must be kept in perspective with the overall objective of the program.

Communication Methods in Sadiq Centers

The methods of communication are varied in the Sadiq Program and different methods are used for different purposes. The main methods are as follows:

1. Meetings of the Sadiq Center -- Regular meetings of the Sadiq members are held with the extension agents in the center facilities in the village. These meetings provide a focal point for activities of the center as well as allowing the members to gain more information about their projects. Most centers have meetings twice a month or more. A more detailed description is contained in Chapter IV.

2. Tours and Trips -- Members are taken on tours of other members' projects and to visit members of other centers. Trips are also organized to visit educational institutions which relate to the project work of the members (animal husbandry stations, horticulture stations, etc.). This is a further exposure to new methods of agriculture and allows members to actually see what innovations are available.

3. Small Groups -- The Sadiq projects are now carried out mainly by small groups of youth (5-8 members). These youth assist in the selection of the projects and

share in the planning of as well as doing the work on the project. This provides an excellent atmosphere for two-way dialogue between the youth and also between the extension agent and the youth.

4. Audio-Visual Methods -- Films and slides are shown to Sadiq members and their families in the local Sadiq Center. These film screenings provide an excellent opportunity to visually present new learning experiences in agriculture, health, nutrition and social issues to the whole rural family.

5. Extension Publications -- Publications are used for Sadiq members and adults to introduce new agricultural information. The low level of literacy among adults somewhat limits this method but a new series of bulletins which makes use of simple pictures and local dialect should prove to be more effective.

6. Posters and Pamphlets -- These two methods are an effective way of creating an awareness of a certain portion of a project or some special aspect of the program. This method can be used to periodically stimulate or renew interest in a program.

Communication Material

An example of some of the communication material used in the Sadiq Program is the communications package produced from October, 1973 to February, 1974 in Iraq. This package is designed to provide a complete and uniform presentation

FIGURE 2

INFORMATION POSTER OF THE SADIQ POULTRY PROJECT

مركز الصديق

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مركز الصديق

(SADIQ CENTERS)

مراكز الصديق.. تسعى لزيادة الانتاج والعمل لبناء الريف الاشتراكي

(Young People Involved in Improving Food Production)

وزارة الزراعة والاصلاح الزراعي

مديرية الارشاد الزراعي العامة

(Operated by the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform)

of material to promote awareness in the Sadiq Centers and to provide a source of educational material.

The package contains the following material:

1. A 16 mm color film, 30 minutes in length, in the Arabic language. The film shows the Sadiq Centers in action and presents in a concise manner the general objectives and procedures of the program. The purpose of the film is to promote awareness of the Sadiq program and its objectives.

2. Seven slide sets/filmstrips of approximately 70 slides each, showing in detail some of the technical aspects of individual Sadiq projects. These slides were designed to assist in the education program of the centers.

3. Commentary booklets were written for the slide sets/filmstrips, giving a detailed description of each slide. This booklet will be used by extension agents in making slide presentations as well as by itself as a teaching handbook.

4. Three large multi-color posters (30" x 16") were designed to depict the poultry raising project, the beekeeping project, and the general Sadiq Program. These posters were printed in large quantities and have been distributed to the rural areas to promote awareness of the Sadiq Program (see Figure 2).

5. Small posters (8" x 10") illustrating the National Symbol of the Sadiq Program which are used to identify

FIGURE 3

NATIONAL SYMBOL OF SADIQ PROGRAM IN IRAQ

the individual projects of the members in the field (see Figure 3).

6. An information leaflet briefly describes the Sadiq Program and provides details on how to get more information. This leaflet was printed for distribution to educational institutes, schools and at training courses related to Rural Development.

All of this material was seen as a vital aid to the extension agents in the field for promoting awareness of the Sadiq Centers and enhancing the learning experiences of members.

Summary

Since this thesis proposed to use the Rural Youth Program in Iraq as an example of how a non-formal education program for rural youth would operate, it was necessary to give a detailed description of the country itself, the government structure and the Sadiq Program. This chapter should give some indication of the conditions which gave rise to the program and how it was designed to fit the existing structure. The next chapter will provide some more detail of some of the methods and processes which were used in the development and operation of the Sadiq Program in Iraq. This chapter will help to define some of the guidelines and boundary conditions which were found to be critical in the establishment of such a non-formal program in Iraq.

CHAPTER IV

METHODS AND PROCESSES OF RURAL YOUTH WORK IN IRAQ

Introduction

The Sadiq Center Program in Iraq developed over a period of years from an expression of concern and interest to a viable growing program based on the initial planned objectives. This rapid growth was facilitated by the active support of the Iraq government and the initial support provided by the "Freedom from Hunger Campaign" project. There are many other reasons for the rapid growth of the Sadiq program such as the presence of a large trained agricultural extension staff, the concerted effort by the government in developing a nationwide system of agricultural cooperatives, and the presence of a stable government (since 1968) which placed emphasis on rural development. All of these factors combined to make the early stages of the Sadiq program a "bright light" on the rural development scene in Iraq.

The Sadiq program in Iraq has been defined as a form of non-formal education. Although the philosophy of non-formal education is not new, the attempt to define and analyze it distinct from other education forms is a relatively new pursuit. Much of the published information on non-formal education is a theoretical description of its characteristics

and benefits with a few case studies of experimental projects. This thesis, and specifically the next two chapters, could be seen as adding to this body of knowledge through an explanation of the actual operation of a non-formal program and an analysis of the program in operation. As stated previously, however, much of the design and structure of non-formal programs must be the result of experimentation; this was precisely the route followed by the Sadiq Program in Iraq.

The Sadiq Program was started on a modest scale with the establishment of five experimental centers. As a result of the initial work with these experimental centers, which involved careful monitoring, it was discovered that certain methods and processes were more successful than others in the establishment and operation of a rural youth center. These methods and processes formed the basis of national policies for the Sadiq Program and defined the framework for staff and leadership training and project design. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the resulting successful policies and guidelines which arose out of this initial testing period and came to form the national structure of the program.

A Guidance Manual for Sadiq Centers

The original staff involved in rural youth work spent a great deal of time in five experimental centers. This staff was involved in defining the critical parameters in the introduction and adoption of various project designs and

organizational methods. After a period of 18 months, there were definite patterns of organizational and project design developing. When new centers were established, these successful patterns of functional methods and processes were followed.

It was necessary to affect in an orderly way the necessary policy changes at the national level, and to assure some continuity in the program throughout Iraq. It was decided therefore to compile the data generated by the experimental centers into a Guidance Manual for use by government staff operating the program. The Guidance Manual provided a planned step-by-step process for the establishment and operation of a new Sadiq Center and the maintenance of existing centers. The fact that the manual was developed from experiences in Iraq made it extremely relevant for field workers.

This chapter will consist of a summary of some of the major sections of the Guidance Manual. This summary will clearly illustrate the types of experiences which were successful in Iraq. Readers can draw their own parallels for their particular situation.

Introduction and Philosophy of Sadiq Centers

The Sadiq Program is a collection of the individual village level Sadiq Centers which consist of a group of youth 10-18 under the guidance of an extension agent who is involved in an agricultural project. The specific objectives of the

Sadiq Program have been listed in Chapter III. The oath or pledge of the Sadiq Program (which was written in Arabic, but not translated to English) states in a patriotic and nationalistic spirit the general goals and objectives of the program. The symbol and major poster of the program are illustrated in Chapter III. As in most countries, young people in Iraq are interested in the strong sense of identity provided by some type of national symbol.

The Sadiq Program has three main elements which together comprise a total rural development experience. These three elements are as follows.

Projects

All members of a Sadiq Center are involved in an agricultural, handicraft or homemaking project. The primary emphasis is on agricultural projects which can be carried out individually or as a member of a group. These projects provide a skill learning experience for the youth themselves, as well as a practical demonstration of improved agricultural practices for the whole community.

Personal Development of Members

The learning experiences gained by the youth in the center contribute to their personal and leadership development. The youth gain technical and personal skills through their participation in the centers' activities. Some of their activities are:

(a) Holding of regular meetings with the extension agent, members and leaders, and election of officers from among the members to assist in the operation of the business of the center.

(b) Planning of special center activities such as a trip to visit another club or a trip to an agricultural station. Community work such as tree planting and cleaning of irrigation ditches is also a valuable experience in planning and cooperative involvement.

(c) The responsibility of having their own project as well as the personal recognition and awards they receive for completing a project is considered an important element of the program.

The Sadiq Program uses the projects of the members as the major focus but considers the personal development experienced by the members to be an important result of this focus.

Development of Local Adult Volunteer Leaders

The local leaders can be parents of members of just interested adults. The local leaders are the facilitators which allow the center to be formed and legitimize the presence of the extension agent in the village. Once the club is in operation, the local leaders assist the extension agent in the organization of projects and activities. After the local leaders have gained some experience in the operation of the center and are conversant with the Sadiq philosophy of learning-by-doing, they can begin to play a much larger role

in actually running the club. In the early stages of center operation, a great deal of government support is required but increased operation by local leaders and members occurs as local leaders are trained and allowed to become more involved in the center program.

These three areas constitute the major philosophic framework of the center program and reference will often be made to them throughout this chapter.

Establishment and Organization of Sadiq Centers

Role of Sadiq Work in Agricultural Training

In Iraq, both the Agricultural Extension agent and the Agricultural Cooperative agent are responsible for the Sadiq Program. Since the organization of Sadiq Centers can be carried out by either of these agents, the text from now on in the thesis will refer to the "agricultural agent(s)".

In terms of specific agricultural knowledge, these agents have the responsibility of passing on the results of research to all the various types of farmers in the agricultural sector. If rural people learn about something they think will be of benefit to them, they will often adopt it. The communication of this information, is an important aspect of the agricultural agent's work. The Sadiq Program can assist in accomplishing this task in the following ways:

(a) The youth can teach adults through their "learn-

by-doing" projects; the yough provide an effective demonstration of improved methods for parents.

(b) The Sadiq Center provides the agent with a valuable contact point in the village.

(c) The agents have many educational and production programs for general use in the rural areas. Some of these programs can be directed through the Sadiq Center to provide some coordination between the agents' activities and his youth activities.

(d) If the agricultural agent is associated with a vigorous and dynamic youth center, he will be more readily accepted by the farmers of the village and better able to relate his educational programs to them.

As the agricultural agents become more involved in the educational aspects of rural development, youth programs will become an integral part of their work.

Steps in the Establishment of a Sadiq Center

As a result of the development of approximately 100 centers in various parts of the country, a definite sequence was developed for the establishment of Sadiq Centers. These are general guidelines to be followed, recognizing that some areas may have special characteristics which must be considered in establishment.

The following is a step-by-step outline of the short term objectives and methods to be used in the establishment of a Sadiq Center.

Objectives	Methods
1. To select an area where a strong center could be established; where facilities already exist such as schools, cooperative societies, roads, power, etc. as well as good agricultural production potential (soil, water, etc.).	1. There should be meetings with the Regional Agricultural Chief and Extension and Co-operative Directors in the provinces to decide on a suitable area. They should choose two or three potential areas and determine in which area the response is the best.
2. To determine in which villages of the selected region there is the most interest in forming a Sadiq Center.	2. While carrying out other extension activities in the area, the agent could speak with farmers and boys to test their reaction to the concept of a Sadiq Center. The agent could meet informally with local leaders to decide in which area he would receive the most support. If there is high interest shown in several villages, the agent will have to choose one area in which to begin.
3. To select a specific village or area to work with and to determine the speci-	3. The agent could conduct an information survey of the social, physical and agricul-

fic interests and needs of the area.

tural situation of the villages. The agent should prepare a list of questions. The information can be gathered from individuals or from small groups of two or three. The village with the strongest show of interest and support, agricultural potential and leadership availability should be chosen to insure a successful start in the area.

4. To arrange a formal meeting of adults and local leaders of the village chosen. This meeting is to give the group a more detailed idea of the objectives and activities of a center and also to discuss the results of the information survey.

4. Begin the meeting by showing the Sadiq Center film which gives a complete picture of the activities and philosophy of the program. The agents should explain the general principles of the project such as financing and credit, members' duties, and assistance by government. Included in this meeting should be the following type of people: respected and successful farmers, members of

cooperative boards, members of executive of Farmers' Society, school teachers, religious leaders and interested parents. From this meeting try to select a group of leaders who strongly support the idea to become the sponsors of the center.

5. To arrange a meeting of youth and their parents and the new center leaders, to explain the program to the youth and find out their interests.

5. Again, the meeting can begin with the showing of the Sadiq Center film. The agent can also show some project slide sets to explain in detail what is involved in some of the projects. Advertise the meeting through the previous meeting of parents and through the cooperative society meetings. It is not necessary that a center be organized immediately; if the group is not prepared to make a commitment, schedule another meeting in two or three weeks.

6. To capture their interest and start them thinking about what the center is and what they would like to do in the center.	6. The agent now has a group of boys to work with. The agent can instruct the boys in how to carry out some of his demonstrations. Give some boys access to demonstration material (seeds, fertilizer, concentrate) and let them carry out the demonstrations themselves. The agent can teach the boys some useful skills they can use on their farms. These skills will arouse their interest in agriculture and be of some use to their families. Let the boys realize that the center is fun to belong to and that they will receive other benefits in addition to agricultural education. Other activities which will keep up the members' interest is a visit to a Sadiq Center, agricultural research station, or historical site.

7. To demonstrate the philosophy of the Sadiq Centers and the responsibility of the members concerning their projects and the center.	7. The agent should explain the process of a meeting, the role of the executive and local leaders in the center. The various projects should be explained again in detail, the role of the members and the government participation (credit, etc.). Select some members to start a group project (vegetables, field crops, fruit nursing) as these were found to be the most successful in the early stages. If there are older members in the center, a few could be given individual projects (bee hives, chickens, calves). The agent must be careful at this stage to only expand gradually so he is able to carefully supervise all projects.
8. To assist the members to elect a three or four member executive for the center as well as to decide on one or two local leaders and	8. The agent will explain the duties of each of the officers and show the members how to nominate and elect the officers. The local leaders should be

encourage them to attend and be involved with center activities.

given small jobs and responsibilities in the center, e.g., collect members for a trip, help with group agricultural projects, etc.

9. To help the members start learning some technical information about their projects. Members should have a good knowledge of their project before they start it.

9. Lectures and information on a specific project must be planned two months before you plan to begin the project. The agent should use pictures, slides, films, demonstrations and discussion groups whenever possible to give the members information.

10. To supervise the projects of the members.

10. The agent should make one visit each month to supervise the projects; this should involve visits to the members' homes.

11. To involve local leaders as much as possible in center activities.

11. The agent could hold a training course in the area for local leaders. This could involve outlining of some possible activities of local leaders as well as discussion among leaders of activities in their center.

This is a generalized list of steps to be taken in the establishment of a Sadiq Center. This list does not provide an assured formula for establishing a successful center but is a ordered presentation of methods found to be successful throughout Iraq. The methods described represent the initiation, legitimization and implementation stages of a social change process.[1] As with any innovation in technology or process, these steps must be followed in some order so as to assure continuity of the innovation. There were, of course, some problems with the establishment of Centers in Iraq, some examples of the type of crisis areas which generated the guidelines are as follows:

(a) The Sadiq concept is new in Iraq and it may take some time before it is accepted in a village. Agents should not try to "sell" the Sadiq program but should objectively point out to the people how it will affect their village. This process may take more than one meeting to accomplish; even after initial acceptance of the concept there should not be an immediate push towards a high level of organization. Let the members and adults move smoothly into the project stage of center development.

(b) The agent should carefully consider the data gathered in his information survey when beginning to

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[1] Everett M. Rogers with F.F. Shoemaker, Communication of Innovations (New York: The Free Press, 1971), pp. 279-282.

plan projects and activities for the center. There are many problems to be solved in the rural area but the agent should concentrate on one or two of these, as indicated in his survey. This will provide a central focus for the center. As the center develops, the members can be made aware of other issues which should be of concern to them. After establishment of a center one of the main methods of communicating with the youth will be through organized meetings.

Holding of Meetings in a Sadiq Center

Since the members of most Sadiq Centers tend to be somewhat scattered geographically, meeting with the members in an organized group is an efficient way for the agent to accomplish his tasks. With new Sadiq Centers, the agent may want to hold meetings frequently. One meeting per week is not too frequent for a new center. As the center develops, the agent can cut back on the number of meetings.

Structure of Sadiq Center Meetings

The structure of a meeting with the members is important. The Sadiq Program encourages three-part meetings:

1. Discussion by members, local leaders and the agent of the activities and business of the center (e.g., progress of projects, plans for tours, films, new projects for center, community activities). This dialogue should be shared equally between the youth, agent and

leaders. The agent will be able to guide the discussion and provide input on available facilities, costs of proposed projects, etc.

2. The agent or leader will present a lesson or demonstration according to his plan of work. The information presented here can be technical but should be related to projects or activities in which the members are or will soon be involved. These presentations should be as practical as possible and charts, slides and films should be used whenever possible.

3. The last part of the meeting should be organized into some form of recreation. This section of the meeting can be organized as much as possible by the members and local leaders. The recreation can include some organized sport (football) or may be singing or some traditional games. The members should be allowed to decide what activities they are going to have and these facilitated by the extension agent.

The central focus of the Sadiq Centers are the projects of the members; the organized meetings act to promote the development of these projects.

Projects and Skills for Members of Sadiq Centers

What is a Sadiq Center Project?

Each member of a Sadiq Center should be involved in a

project. Members are assisted with their projects by the center's extension agent and local leader. The members have simple project books with information on their projects and they also keep simple record sheets. In order to be a relevant learning experience for members, projects are practical and socially and agriculturally suited to the area.

The selection and operation of a specific project in an area depends on the following criteria:

(a) The youths' interest and ability in a particular project determines whether it should be implemented.

(b) The project design is based on a specific need for improvement in the region, especially of agricultural production, family health or community life.

(c) The project is practical in terms of cost and time needed by members, parents and government officials.

Design of Sadiq Projects

If projects are designed so as to be economically feasible, the cash returns received from them will be a further incentive for the youth. The fact that the youth will be making money on some project located on his own farm is a strong motivating force to youth and parents.

Although most youth will find the "learning-by-doing" aspect of Sadiq projects rewarding in itself, the opportunity for "learning-while-earning" is also an important aspect. Agents wanting to reinforce this aspect should explain to parents and local leaders that the profit on these projects

should be managed by the members. Parents will be vital in providing the facilities and financing to the members. Since the parents finance the projects, a share of the production will come back to them to cover their investment. In this way the members will begin to appreciate some of the costs of production in agriculture.

Distribution of Projects to Members

Since the age of Sadiq members ranges from 10 to 18, their interests and needs will vary greatly. Projects given to members should be feasible but provide a challenge. In order to keep interest up throughout the year, short and long term projects can be used. The long term projects can be ongoing activities (growing alfalfa or clover, fruit tree nurseries) while the short term projects can be a seasonal field crop or vegetables or a livestock project.

The young members of a center will perform better if they are given short term, technically simple projects (vegetable and field crop projects). Even a simple accomplishment at this age will be rewarding. Older members can be given more complex livestock projects (poultry, beekeeping) as well as long term projects such as alfalfa raising, and raising of breeding stock. In all of these projects the members' interest will depend on their discovery of new information and skills. Project design, therefore, must include a constant and orderly flow of information and activities to the members.

Planning Lessons and Demonstrations for Projects

To assist agents in providing information and realistic learning experiences to the members of Sadiq Centers, a summary of each project and the sources of information available was drawn up. These tables provide a listing of the major learning experiences which would be beneficial to the members and could be enacted through the project. To assist the agent in his first stage of planning, a list of available resource information is provided. Each agent has access to the publications listed in his local office and a special collection or kit comprising some of the more relevant publications was provided to agents already involved with a Sadiq Center. An example of material available for two of the major projects is shown below.

1. Field Crops and Vegetables

Project	Major Learning Experienced Desired	Sources of Information (Copies of Bulletins in Rural Youth Kit or Extension Office)
Production of summer and winter vegetables	Preparation of seed beds Planting times Transplanting Fertilizer use Land preparation	Extension bulletins on vegetable production, Nos. 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 30. Sadiq filmstrips and filmstrip booklets Nos. 1 and 2.

	Insect, disease and weed control	Extension bulletin on fertilizer, No. 136-1970.
	Harvesting	Extension bulletin on weeds, No. 62-1972.
	Storage	
	Marketing	Extension bulletin on insects and plant diseases, No. 55-1972.
		Visit agricultural research center in your province.

2. Animal Husbandry

Raising chickens for egg production	Confinement rearing	Sadiq manual on poultry production.
	Use of deep litter system	Sadiq filmstrips and booklets, Nos. 3, 4, - 1974.
	Use of protein concentrate	Film on Rural Youth in Iraq.
	Diseases and disease control	Extension bulletins on nutrition, Nos. 160, 191 - 1969.
	Use of credit	Poultry record book for Sadiq Centers.
	Marketing of eggs	

All the major projects were outlined in this manner to allow the agents easy access to information on each project. This enables the agents to provide a planned delivery of

information to the members involved in the projects.

In addition to projects, the agents may present some agricultural skills as a demonstration. These skills will not be as extensively studied as a project but will add to the knowledge necessary to carry out the projects.

Skills for Sadiq Members (General Agricultural Knowledge)

It was found to be important and useful to assist members in obtaining skills in general agricultural practices. These skills can be used to stimulate interest in new centers or among new members as well as to teach members some skills which will be useful in carrying out their porjects. These skills will be taught by practical demonstration in the center. An example of how information on skills was presented for agricultural agents follows:

Skill to be Learned	Major Lessons or Concept to be Learned	Sources of Information and Material
a. Vaccination of cattle and poultry	By regular program of disease control, larger numbers of animals will survive; therefore, there will be a larger profit to the family	Local veterinarian to supply vaccine. Extension bulletins 11-1972, 23-1971, 119-1967.
b. Treatment of drinking water	Demonstration dangers dirty water and show simple methods to	See local health officials for procedure and materials

clean and purify water	required. Bulletin published by Rural Youth Section (in kit).

These skills can be used to fill in the educational program of the clubs, and new skill areas can be taught as the members begin to master the basic skills.

The project information and skill information provides a store of information for the agricultural agent to utilize in planning his program for a Sadiq Center. To provide an orderly learning process to members, agents were encouraged to prepare an organized plan for their center based on the needs of the members and the resources and information available to both the agents and members.

Program Planning for Sadiq Centers

In order to provide a planned program in a Sadiq Center, it was found that there were some definite preliminary steps. The first step was to systemize the information to be presented into a list of project activities and a presentation schedule. This process divides the information into workable subject matter units. Each unit would entail a particular subject to be presented through a lecture, demonstration, film, slides, etc. Together the subject matter units make up all the information required for each project. Once the agent has his information systematically laid out, he could proceed

to the next step of preparing a yearly plan for the center. This yearly plan would be drawn up with members and leaders to determine what activities and projects they would like to be involved in during the coming year. When the felt needs of the center were determined, the agent set up his calendar of work for the Sadiq Center. This will set out a schedule of activities, presentations, demonstrations and meetings in which the agent would be involved. In preparing his plan, the agent will draw from his project and skill resource information as well as from the units of subject matter organized for each project.

By following these steps, the agent will be able to organize his resources more effectively and meet the needs of the members of the center with a systematic and regular program. Since the agricultural agents did not spend their full time on the Sadiq Program, a planned program is necessary to ensure that the time they did spend was effective. Another important aspect found to be true in Iraq was that because of the multi-disciplined responsibilities of the agricultural agents, many technical divisions of the Department competed for their time. It was necessary to show a planned commitment to the Sadiq Program in order to not be pulled away for special "campaign" work. It was also recognized that a regular program with the youth was necessary to keep them actively involved.

Project Activities and Presentation Schedule

The information units to be presented to members can be divided into two definite parts. The first is a schedule of the activities to be carried out with the members and the second is the presentations or demonstrations which will provide the members with the knowledge to carry out these activities. The schedule should be in a time ordered sequence with presentation units preceding by one or two meetings the related activity units. An example of such a schedule of units is presented below. Example: Sadiq Vegetable Project.

Activity Units to be Carried Out with Members	Presenation or Demonstration Units (Subjects) for Members
	1. Benefits of vegetables in the family diet -- basic nutrition. Different types of vegetables and their benefits and use.
	2. Growing of vegetables as a part of the farm operation. Show how vegetables can provide food and income when other crops are out of season.
1. Visit a wholesale vegetable market to see how vegetables are delivered and handled.	3. Outline the Sadiq Center vegetable project. Use of improved seed, fertilizer and marketing schemes.

2. Visit horticultural research center in province to see seedbeds and field trials

3. Select members to carry vegetable project (as a group or individually). Inspect land to ensure it is suitable.

4. Demonstration on land preparation and cultivation:
(a) Plowing and discing,
(b) Fertilization methods,
(c) Furrowing and ditching.

5. Demonstration with members of proper method of seedbed preparation, and seeding with and without plastic.

6. Transplanting of seedlings to prepared land.

7. Watering and irrigation of vegetables. Field

4. Show slide set on preparation of seedbeds and transplanting.

5. Explain methods of land preparation and advantages of each method.

6. Use of fertilizer for vegetables to increase yield. Types of fertilizer and rates of application.

7. Use of plastic shelter in growing vegetables or seedlings. Benefits in vegetable quality and marketing times.

8. Variation of seeding time to produce vegetables at different times of the year.

9. How to recognize diseases and insects of crops the members are raising.

10. Control of diseases and insects in crops; use of

demonstration.

8. Demonstration on use of sprayers and mixing of chemicals.

9. Field spraying of vegetables for insects.

10. Demonstration of the application of seed dressing (fertilizer) to vegetables.

11. Demonstration on selection and packaging of vegetables.

12. Germination test to show testing procedure for seed quality.

13. Construction of demonstration storage areas for root crops, corn, etc. (depending on area).

various types of insecticides and spraying methods.

11. Use of chemicals on the farm, storage, use, disposal, prevention of poisoning.

12. Types of weeds prevalent in area and control methods.

13. Marketing of vegetables - selection, grading, packaging.

14. Collection of seed from selected fruits for next crop year. Importance of good seed for weed control, yield, etc.

15. Preparation to be made for planting next crop of vegetables.

16. Storage of vegetables -- drying, building shelters.

In introducing a new project to a center or when briefing new members on an established project, this step-by-step approach was found to be necessary and quite successful.

Since most of the project material is new information to members, the activities they are to carry out in each pro-

ject must be thoroughly explained well in advance. Technical background information also given in advance allows members to associate some scientific principles with the practical field work they will do in the future. The fact that the background to an activity was given in advance of the actual event promotes discussion between members and parents and often created an interest among members during the actual field activity. After the agent has established a detailed listing of his resources and systematized his information, he can begin to prepare a plan of work for the center.

Yearly Plan for a Sadiq Center

In preparing a yearly plan, the agricultural agent must determine the needs and interests of the members and parents of a particular center. To determine these and the local habits and traditions, the agent should spend some time in a particular region before attempting to develop a plan. In planning projects for the center, the agent should consider the following sources of material.

1. Agricultural demonstration plan produced by the Extension Service for the area.
2. Crop and livestock program of the Cooperative Society in the area.
3. Credit programs offered to agriculture by specialized government departments (e.g., corn program).

Some other important principles to consider in preparing the plan are:

1. The members, parents and local leaders must be involved in preparing the plan.
2. The schedule planned should provide activity throughout the year.
3. If there are a large number of youth attending school in the center, plan activities so they do not conflict with examination times, etc.
4. For each project there are several seasonal and marketing considerations which must be carefully timed.
5. Design all activities and projects to promote the concept of self-help.

The project plans should encourage almost equal sharing of the financial and material requirements of the project between members and their parents and the government. Government programs should be used as stimulators of further action and should not be treated as gifts for the farmers.

The yearly plan could be divided into three main sections:

1. Projects
   (a) Description of the type of project to be carried, number of members involved and size of the project.
   (b) Details on timing of project and facilities required from members and government.
2. Tours and Trips
   (a) List the times and places for educational trips, tours to visit other Sadiq Centers, and

tours of the projects of all members of the Sadiq Centers. (Examples of educational trips -- horticulture station, poultry station, calf station, museum or demonstration farm).

3. Special Activities

(a) Community activity examples -- tree planting, canal cleaning, road building, construction of a building for the center.

(b) Films, shown by agent for members and parents in center -- health, nutrition, agriculture, historical.

(c) An Awards Day is held in the fall of the year to show the progress made by the members and to give them some recognition for their work.

This yearly plan will give both members and agents some record of what will be coming up over the year and will allow time for adequate preparation. Once a plan has been drawn up the agent must follow it as closely as possible to keep up parents' and members' active involvement. An example of a completed yearly plan is presented on the following two pages (Table 2). Once a plan of this type is prepared, the agent can begin to draw up what his own schedule of activities will be for the center.

Calendar of Work for Sadiq Centers

The calendar of work provides the agent with a monthly listing of his activities with a Sadiq Center over a one year

TABLE 2

YEARLY PLAN FOR SADIQ CENTER

Activity	Number & Names of People Involved	Time of Activity	Facilities Required	Provided by Members	Provided by Government	Cost to Government
1. Projects						
a) Poultry	8 members (names)	Distribution in March and October	- 240 chicks - 8.6 tons of ration - Feeders - Waterers - Medicine - Houses	- Money for chickens - 70% of ration, wheat and barley ground (6.0 tons) - Build houses	- Delivery chicks - 30% of ration, protein - Concentrate (2.5 tons) - 8 Feeders - 8 Waterers	Ration $ Feeders $ Waterers $
b) Calf Fattening	5 members	Begin in November or May	- 5 calves - 1 ton concentrate - Alfalfa - Shelters - Veterinary Services	- 5 calves - Alfalfa - Shelter	- 1 ton concentrate (gift of credit) - Veterinary Services	Concentrate $
c) Vegetables	15 members	Planting March and September	- Land - prepared - Seedlings - Fertilizer - Water	- Land prepared - Water - Fertilizer and credit	- Seedlings - Fertilizer	

TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)

Activity	Number & Names of People Involved	Time of Activity	Facilities Required	Provided by Members	Provided by Government	Cost to Government
2. Tours & Trips						
a) Visit another Sadiq Center	All members	January	Bus 35 people	--	Bus	Cost of bus
b) Visit research center	All members	September	Bus 35 people	--	Bus	Cost of bus
3. Special Activity						
a) Films	Members and Parents	February April September	- Films, projector - Cinema, car	--	- Films, projector, - Cinema, car	--
b) Tree planting	All members	April	- Trees - Tools	- Work at planting	- Trees - Tools	--
c) Achievement Day	All members	November	- Awards - Judges - Material for display - Microphone	- Material for display - Participate in event	- Awards - Judges - Microphone	Awards?

period. It allows the agent to plan ahead for the preparation of resources and information required for the center program. A calendar of work consists of the following sections:

1. Project activities -- the agent must list, step-by-step, what activities must be done in the center to start the project and follow them up.
2. Project presentations -- depending on what project activities have been scheduled, a series of presentations will be scheduled at regularly organized meetings. As mentioned previously, these presentations should be scheduled before the activities are carried out.
3. Tours and trips -- set a date and place for these events and make the necessary arrangements.
4. Special activities -- arrange dates and prepare facilities required in advance.

In drawing up a calendar of work, the agents could refer to the section "Project Activities and Presentations Schedule" in the Guidance Manual and enter into their calendar the activities and presentations which coincide with the projects desired by the club. The agent could also draw the skills listed in "Skills for Sadiq Members (General Agricultural Knowledge)" from the Guidance Manual and insert these activities into his calendar at the appropriate time. The calendar of work will allow the agent to know well in advance what the activities of the center will be and allow him to schedule information presentations and skill training to occur in

advance of the actual activity. The calendar of work also coordinates the material supply function which must be carried on by the agent in providing inputs to the center.

As mentioned earlier, the calendar of work helped to insure that the program with the Sadiq Center was carried through on a regular basis. The calendar prevents the transfer of the agent to other work areas during the time alloted for the Sadiq Program. By trying to keep the agents working according to their planned schedule, the Extension Service can begin a more orderly approach to rural development issues thereby moving away from the traditional "crisis-to-crisis" method of operation.

The following three pages present an example of a "Calendar of Work for a Sadiq Center". This calendar of work is related to the "Yearly Plan for a Sadiq Center".

Effects of Program Planning on the Sadiq Program

The Sadiq Program has previously been identified as a form of non-formal education and as such does not have a controlled departmental emphasis. In the Sadiq Program learning takes place in scattered locations which may change from time to time. The lack of a captive audience and the desire for programs suited to particular interests in each area demands a flexible and adaptable planning process. The program planning described here is a process in which the needs and aspirations of the rural people are combined with the physical and financial resources available in the region. The govern-

TABLE 3

CALENDAR OF WORK FOR SADIQ CENTER

Month	Project Activities	Subject of Lectures	Tours, Trips	Special Activities
January	1. Prepare seed beds for center. 2. Slides on building poultry houses.	1. Vegetables (seed beds and land preparation). 2. Poultry (houses).	Bus trip, visit other center.	Play football with club you visit.
February	1. Prepare land for vegetables. 2. Inspect poultry houses. 3. Members bring grain to mix with concentrate.	1. Vegetables (transplanting and fertilizer). 2. Poultry (nutrition).		Film on vegetables. Slides on vegetables.
March	1. Transplant seedlings. 2. Distribute chickens.	1. Vegetables (irrigation, disease control). 2. Poultry (disease control).	Tour of projects of all members of the center.	
April	1. Distribute alfalfa seed for calves.	1. Poultry (deep litter system). 2. Calves (nutrition). 3. Alfalfa (how to plant and care for).		Planting trees in community.

TABLE 3 (CONTINUED)

Month	Project Activities	Subject of Lectures	Tours, Trips	Special Activities
May	1. Distribute concentrate for calves. 2. Inspect fields, vegetables and alfalfa.	1. Poultry (roost construction). 2. Calves (disease prevention).		Films (health, agriculture. Slides.
June	1. Disinfect and insecticide poultry houses. 2. Vaccination, poultry - Newcastle disease.	1. Calves (growth rates and marketing. 2. Vegetables (disease control).		Invite another Sadiq Club to inspect your projects and play a game of football with them.
July	1. Lesson in keeping records. 2. Selection of vegetables for marketing.	1. Poultry (records). 2. Vegetables (marketing cooperatively).		
August	1. Prepare land for vegetables. 2. Marketing of calves.	1. Vegetables (winter preparations, seed beds). 2. Parts of beef animal.		Film (cooperative, rural). Slides.

TABLE 3 (CONTINUED)

Month	Project Activities	Subject of Lectures	Tours, Trips	Special Activities
September	1. Prepare seed beds for winter vegetables. 2. Inspect houses for poultry.	1. Vegetables (transplanting, fertilizing). 2. Preparing houses for poultry.	Bus trip, visit agriculture station or vegetable market.	
October	1. Transport seedlings. 2. Mix concentrate for poultry.	1. Calves (nutrition care). 2. Poultry (nutrition care).		
November	1. Deliver calf concentrate. 2. Delivery poultry. 3. Inspect vegetable fields.	1. Vegetables (insect control, nutritional benefits). 2. Poultry (disease control).	Visit fields or orchard of good farmer in district to see how he plans his work.	Achievement Day.
December	1. Disinfect and insecticide poultry houses. 2. Vaccination, poultry - Newcastle disease.	1. Vegetables (use of plastic for beds). 2. Slides on seed beds.		Films (calves, poultry).

ment also has programs which provide inputs into agriculture which can be used to partially complete the requirements of a project. A Yearly Plan for the Sadiq Center, along with a calendar of work, brings the expressed needs of the members of the center together with the available resources of the government and the members to provide a balanced and continuous program. The unstructured nature of the Sadiq Center lends itself to free and creative approaches to program planning, but it also requires that the program planning be done in such a way as to maintain the momentum of the program once it is begun in a particular area. Some of the vital elements of the planning process described above are the participation of the members in the process and the utilization of the existing resources of the region in the design of projects.

Since the Sadiq Program was new in Iraq, many government officials were not aware of its objectives or how it operated. Many officials tended to discount its importance in everyday planning and being a long range developmental program, it was often given a low priority. The fact that agents had a complete calendar of work for the Sadiq Center helped to raise its priority for government facilities and the agents' time and insured a smooth delivery of the program from the government to the members of the Sadiq Center.

Summary

Much of the material in this chapter was a description

of how an agricultural agent would proceed in the organization of a Sadiq Center. The methods and processes explained in this chapter were in effect a summary of the total Sadiq Program. The next step in this thesis will be to measure the way the Sadiq Program has been accepted in the rural areas and what affects, if any, it has had on the rural people The next chapter, therefore, will summarize the results of an evaluation survey done on the Sadiq Program. Hopefully, the results of this survey will provide some insight into some structural and organizational aspects of the Sadiq Program which were vital to its future growth and development.

CHAPTER V

EVALUATION SURVEY OF THE RURAL YOUTH PROGRAM IN IRAQ

Introduction

The Sadiq Program began in Iraq in 1969; the few experimental centers established in 1969-1971 grew to approximately 75 by September, 1973. During this rapid growth period, the program underwent many changes in design and structure in order to develop a successful model. In September of 1973, the policy makers in the Department of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform decided to critically evaluate the progress of the Sadiq Program to determine how it was being accepted in the rural areas and whether it was moving towards accomplishing its objectives. They suggested that a survey be conducted among rural people and government officials to allow an overall evaluation of the program.

The decision to conduct a survey at this point in the development of the program was made with the intention of providing input for program planning in the future. During the early establishment process of the Sadiq Program, some assumptions were made regarding the design and structure of the program which were based on fairly limited regional experiences. It was hoped that a nationwide survey would

be a fact-finding exercise of a scale which would allow policy makers to either confirm their original assumptions or to alter the program in line with information provided in the survey.

Another force behind the government's decision to conduct an evaluation was to obtain some concrete evidence of the benefits and value of the Sadiq Program in order to calm the criticism that the program was receiving from other government departments. The criticism was not damaging in itself as it only represented the jealous rivalry which existed between departments when a particular department developed a successful program.

This chapter will provide some analysis of how effective the Sadiq Program was and how it was meeting the needs of the rural youth. A major thrust of the thesis is to show how the experiences of the Rural Youth Program in Iraq may be of benefit to the development of similar programs in other countries. Throughout the remainder of the thesis, the interview schedule and the analysis of the Sadiq Program will be referred to as the Sadiq Center Survey.

Sadiq Center Survey

As mentioned previously, the Sadiq Survey was carried out four years after the Sadiq Program started in Iraq. It was conducted in November of 1973. The author was directly involved in designing and executing the Survey for the govern-

ment. The objectives of the survey as set out by the author were as follows:

1. To determine the progress made with the initial structure of the Sadiq Program, to allow an accurate assessment of the program's strengths and limitations, and to determine if the present structure is relevant for the future needs of the rural population.
2. To assess the effectiveness of the Sadiq Program as an element of the agricultural extension program in the agricultural modernization of rural Iraq.
3. To isolate regional differences (resource, cultural) which have or will in the future affect the program.
4. To determine the attitudes of government officials toward the program. This would enable more accurate planning of training programs for officials working with the program in the field, as well as those administering or supervising the program from a higher level.
5. To evaluate the Sadiq Program as a non-formal education program and to determine the role of non-formal education in Iraq's rural development scheme.
6. To determine whether the Sadiq Program is functioning as a stimulus to "self-help" rural development.

Structure of the Survey

The survey was composed to two parts which included:

1. A survey of the Sadiq Centers in the villages com-

posed of youth members, youth non-members, adults -- parents of members, adults -- parents of non-members.

2. A survey of selected government officials in the Department of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform.

The interview schedules were designed to be administered by an interview process and were pretested in villages close to Baghdad. In the survey of the village centers, the interviewers met with groups of each of the above categories. The interviewers were instructed to randomly select eight to ten people from each group and conduct an interview with them. The group would be asked a question and the interviewer would record the concensus of the group. In the survey of government officials, the interviewers met with the individual officials.

The interview staff were selected from a group of newly recruited extension agents. These agents were involved in a six-week training and orientation course and were about to be assigned to the field. The agents were all recent graduates of agriculture from a university in Iraq and had Bachelor of Science degrees. In addition to their university training, these agents had attended a three-month pre-service training course in agricultural extension techniques. These trainees were considered to have sufficient training to act as interviewers.

The interviewers were given a five-day orientation regarding the Sadiq Program and the way in which they would conduct the survey. The interviewers were sent to the pro-

vinces with an official letter from the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform to facilitate their contact with other government officials and thus with the Sadiq Centers.

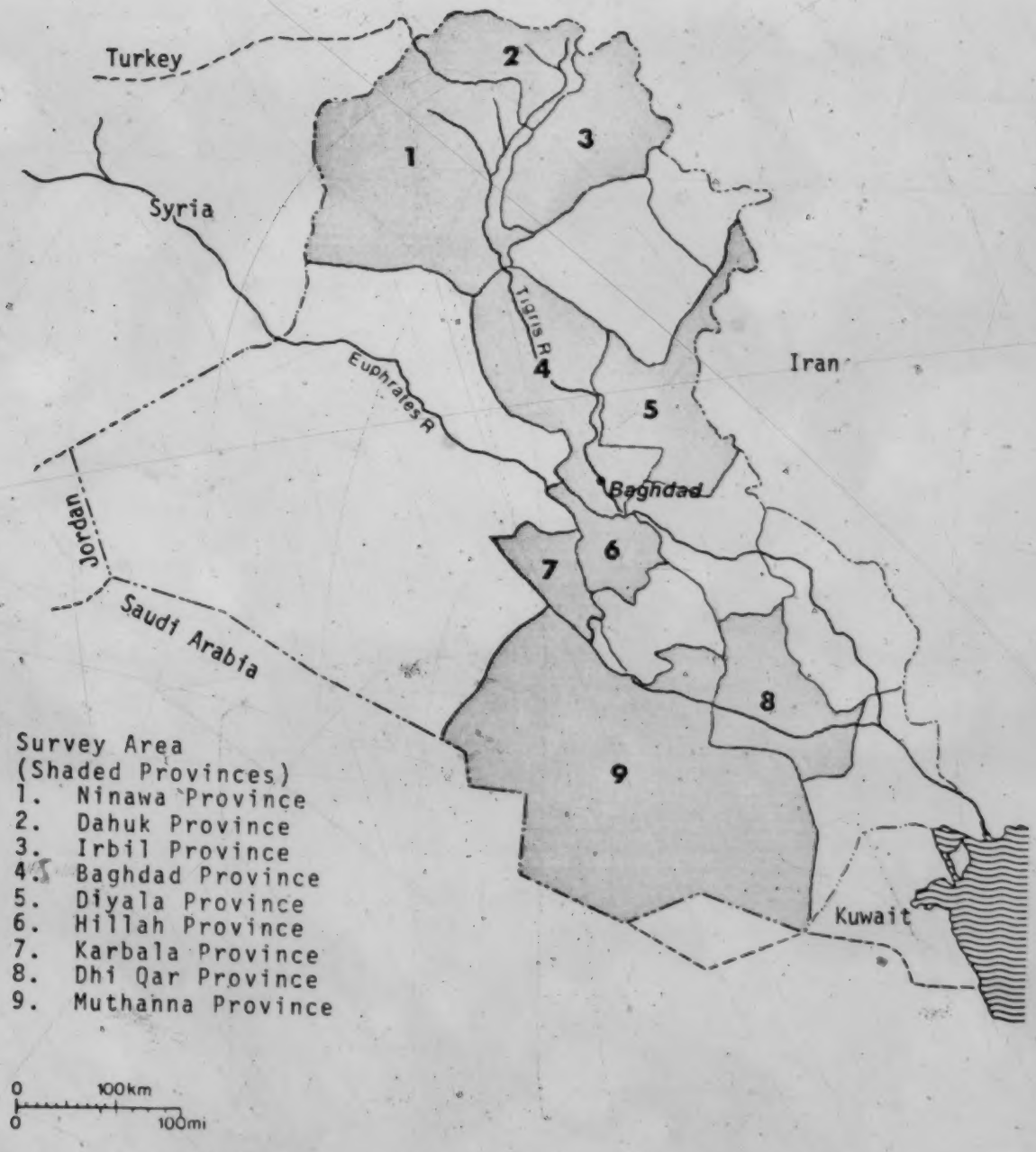
The survey was designed such that 13 agents would visit 9 provinces over a period of 6 days. There were 12 provinces in Iraq where the Sadiq Program was operating; 9 were chosen because the program had operated there for some time, and the people would have more formulated opinions regarding the program. The provinces chosen are illustrated on a map on the following page (see Figure 4) and are listed as follows:

Arbil Province	-	1 agent
Babylon Province	-	1 agent
Baghdad Province	-	2 agents
Diyala Province	-	1 agent
Du Hok Province	-	1 agent
Kerbala Province	-	2 agents
Mothena Province	-	1 agent
Ninevah Province	-	2 agents
Thekar Province	-	2 agents
		13 agents

The interviewers visited the Sadiq Centers with the local agricultural agents, who also introduced them to the provincial government officials who were to be interviewed. A detailed discussion of each of the two surveys is contained in the next section.

FIGURE 4

MAP OF IRAQ



Village Survey of Youth and Adults in Sadiq Centers

In this section of the survey 32 centers were randomly selected from about 60 centers in the nine provinces. These centers were representative of 1,200 members and approximately 70 local leaders. They accounted for about 45 percent of the total number of Sadiq Centers in Iraq. In the analysis, the data on each center were divided by region as follows:

TABLE 4

PROVINCES COVERED BY SADIQ SURVEY

Region	Province	No. of Sadiq Centers	
		Province	Region
North			6
	Irbil	2	
	Da Huk	1	
	Ninevah	3	
Central			7
	Baghdad	3	
	Diyala	4	
South			19
	Hillah	4	
	Kerbala	5	
	Mothena	4	
	Dhi Qar	6	
Total		32	32

As mentioned earlier, the interview schedule was administered to various groups in each of the 32 centers. The following groups were interviewed in each center.

1. Youths who were members of the Sadiq Center -

32 groups.

2. Youths of the village who were not members of the Sadiq Center - 32 groups.

3. Adults (males) who were fathers of youth in the Sadiq Center - 32 groups.

4. Adults (males) who were local leaders of the village but not involved in the Sadiq Center - 32 groups.

It was hoped that answers to the following questions would be found through the analysis of the survey. The answers are important to future policy formulation regarding the Sadiq Program.

1. Is the Sadiq Program assisting in the modernization and rural development of Iraq?

2. Do rural adults see a value in having their children involved in a non-formal agricultural education program?

3. Is the Sadiq Program an effective extension tool for the introduction of modern agricultural methods into the rural sector?

4. Can rural youth training in agriculture promote increased employment in the rural sector?

5. What are the major differences in location, attitude and training requirements which must be taken into consideration in program planning?

In order to have a complete picture of how the Sadiq Program was operating, it was also necessary to interview a cross-section of government officials.

Survey of Government Officials

In this section of the survey, personal interviews were conducted with 72 government officials who were employees of the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform. The data was broken down into the same geographic regions as the other survey as well as according to the positions of the particular officials.

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS IN SADIQ SURVEY

	Extension Agents	Cooperative Agents	Supervisors	Directors	Total
North	5	3	8	6	22
Central	5	0	4	7	17
South	11	0	10	12	33
Total	21	3	22	25	72

In each province people with the following titles were interviewed: Director of Agriculture Region, Director of Agricultural Services, Director of Cooperatives, Supervisor of Extension, Supervisor of Rural Youth, and Extension agents working in the field.

This survey was designed to assist in answering some questions regarding attitudes of government officials towards the Sadiq Program as well as to identify administrative weaknesses in the program. The questions were as follows:

1. Do government officials see the long run effects of rural youth education as being of benefit to agricultural production and rural life in the future?
2. Do government officials feel that some action should be taken now in the area of non-formal education for rural youth?
3. Do government officials see the Sadiq Program as an extension tool and as a means of introducing agricultural change in the rural sector?
4. Are the attitudes of government officials consistent at the field and policy making level regarding administration of the Sadiq Program?
5. Do regional differences in the attitudes of government officials exist; if they do, must they be considered in program planning and training?
6. Has the rural youth training received by agricultural agents had a beneficial impact on their work with the Sadiq Center?

The survey of government officials was considered important to determine the attitudes of officials towards the program, and the difficulties they were experiencing in administration of the program.

Both of these surveys were analyzed and the data is presented in raw form in the Appendix. From this raw data, an analysis of some of the vital factors affecting the Sadiq Program was carried out for both of the surveys.

Discussion of Results of Village Survey of Members and Adults in Sadiq Centers

Organization of Sadiq Centers

Thirty-two centers were surveyed out of a total of 65 centers currently operating in the country. The centers surveyed ranged in age from one which had only been established for two months to one which was three years old (the oldest center in the region). The number of members in the centers ranged from 8 to 45, the average number being 23. The official age of members in the center is from 10 to 18 years.

Fifty-five percent of the centers were organized within a Cooperative Society and of this number, 6 percent were established within a Cooperative Social Center (a segment of the Cooperative Society which organizes sports, handicraft lessons and some health services for all members of the cooperative). The remainder of the centers were organized in selected extension districts (extension villages). The survey was conducted at a time of transition in Iraq; the Cooperative Department and the Agricultural Extension Department had been operating separately until about six months before the survey was conducted. Both these departments have since been brought under one Ministry. The cooperatives were established to gain production efficiencies through a cooperative marketing and input supply system, and the extension service now operates its education programs within the cooperative societies. This change has allowed the educational activities of the extension service to be coordinated with the production faci-

lities of the cooperative societies. In the future, most Sadiq Centers will be established within an existing co-operative society.

Projects in Sadiq Centers

The main projects of the Sadiq Centers were (in order of frequency) vegetable growing, field crops, poultry raising, beekeeping and handicrafts. In the analysis which follows, the number of active projects in a club was taken as a partial measure of the level of development of the center since the presence of recognizable projects implies a degree of permanence and involvement by the members.

There were two types of projects in the Sadiq Centers; some members had their own individual projects while others were involved in group projects where small groups of members shared the work on a particular project.

In the survey, the parents of members and local leaders were divided on this subject. Fifty percent wanted the youth involved in collective projects while 38 percent wanted individual projects.

This question is an example of an area where the respondents were often answering what they thought the interviewers wanted to hear. By choosing collective projects, the parents were complying with the government's efforts to create a strong Socialist state. In fact, Iraqi farmers are quite independent and the move towards establishing cooperative or state farms will be a long process.

Not all members of a Sadiq Center were involved in a project at the time of the survey. The reasons for this are summarized in Table 6.

TABLE 6

REASONS FOR MEMBERS NOT HAVING A PROJECT

Reason	Percent and Number (in Brackets)
1. Members have no money	24 (8)
2. Members have no facilities or materials	48 (15)
3. Members don't wish to be involved	24 (8)
4. Other reasons	4 (1)
Total	100

Although about 50 percent of the centers had at least 50 percent of their members involved in projects, there were still a considerable number of members not involved in projects. In new centers it usually took a year or so to get all the members involved in a project, because of seasonal difficulties and material shortages, and there were a large proportion of new centers at the time of the survey.

Activities in Sadiq Centers

Most of the centers have activities outside their regular project work as shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7

MAJOR ACTIVITIES IN SADIQ CENTERS

Activity	Percent and Number (in Brackets)
1. Travel to visit other Sadiq Centers	18 (9)
2. Educational tour to visit agricultural facilities	30 (10)
3. Participation in local celebrations Public works projects Community film shows	5 (9)
Total	83 (27)

These activities served to broaden the interests of the members by exposing them to new ideas and situations. The activities also lead to the formation of an identifiable peer group among the young people; membership provided satisfaction and a feeling of unity among the members.

The varied program of activities points out some of the strengths of a non-formal out-of-school education program as it can provide a wide variety of appealing activities and still have its members involved in practical educational programs.

Local Leaders in Sadiq Centers

One of the main principles in the establishment of Sadiq Centers is that they have a local leader selected from interested persons within the village. Seventy-three percent

of the centers had at least one recognized local leader. These local leaders attended meetings with the members and agents and assisted the agent in the supervision of the center. In 45 percent of the centers with leaders, the local leaders assisted with the practical agricultural work of the center. Because of this high level of involvement in the center, the efforts of the local leaders can be made more effective if they are given systematic training on how they can be involved in the centers' programs.

Adoption of Skills in the Sadiq Center

One of the functions of the Sadiq Program is to serve as a mechanism for the introduction of modern agricultural methods into the rural sector. The youth in the centers were asked which of the project skills they felt their parents were taking advantage of. The adults themselves were asked which projects gave them new information they were able to use. The two groups were in fairly close agreement on all the projects, as can be seen in Table 8 and 9.

It can be readily seen from these tables that there is close agreement between the members' perception of what benefits they think their parents have received and what the parents themselves have said. This close agreement helps to substantiate the fact that 56 percent of the parents reported benefits from the poultry project and 31 percent reported benefits from the vegetable project. This data lends positive support to the assumption thatthe Sadiq Program can be

TABLE 8

SKILL BENEFITS RECEIVED BY PARENTS FROM SADIQ PROJECTS -- MEMBERS' VIEWS

Sadiq Project	Groups Which Benefited from Projects	Groups Which Did Not Benefit from Projects	Total
	Percent and Number (in Brackets)		
Poultry	53% (17)	47% (15)	100% (32)
Vegetables	31% (10)	69% (22)	100% (32)

TABLE 9

SKILL BENEFITS RECEIVED BY PARENTS FROM SADIQ PROJECTS -- PARENTS' VIEWS

Sadiq Project	Groups Which Benefited from Projects	Groups Which Did Not Benefit from Projects	Total
	Percent and Number (in Brackets)		
Poultry	56% (18)	44% (14)	100% (32)
Vegetables	31% (10)	69% (22)	100% (32)

effective as a mechanism of the Agricultural Extension Service in promoting change in rural Iraq.

Another pertinent observation from this table is that there was a difference between the poultry and vegetable projects in the perception of benefits received. This may be

explained by the fact that many farmers have grown some type of vegetables so are somewhat familiar with the process; the raising of chickens for egg production was, however, a new experience for many farmers and they had many new things to learn. These results help to illustrate that the Sadiq projects operating through the youth of a family can improve the practices of existing farming operations as well as function to introduce new innovations into the rural sector. The Sadiq Program seems to be making some progress in promoting change within the farm family; however, to be as effective as possible in promoting change, the attitudes of the Sadiq members parents toward the centers' program are important.

Attitudes of Parents of Sadiq Members

The adults, who were mainly parents of members, indicated by a majority in 75 percent of the groups that they would be willing to provide all the facilities required by their son for a project in the Sadiq Center.

In one of the important responses of the survey, the adults were asked if they observed any change in their boys or their family in general as a result of the Sadiq Center activities. Sixty-two percent of the adults replies that they had noticed some change in their boys. Many adults felt that their sons now had less leisure time as they spent it with their projects. Another common observation was that the boys became more interested in agriculture and spent more time working with their fathers. Fathers also felt that the youth

had more skills and knowledge about farming operations such as fertilizing and irrigating. Some parents found the Sadiq Center producing a more significant effect on their sons than school; they felt this was because the center was teaching agriculture.

Some examples of typical responses to this question are listed below:

> "The youth are doing something else besides playing."
>
> "The boys' ideas are changing, they never used to think of being involved in agriculture, but now they are assisting their fathers as well as working with their projects."
>
> "The boys are learning about pruning and grafting which is important since this is a fruit tree area."
>
> "A change appeared clearly in the boys; we saw this in their skills in planting, levelling, seeding and fertilizing."

Of the 13 percent of the negative adult group responses about a change in their son's attitude, many replied that they felt there was no change because the projects did not yield any financial return. Many of the new centers had some problems in establishing their projects and thus did not receive any revenue from them in the early stages. The older centers had more financially productive projects and the adults also began to realize some of the non-financial benefits of the program and saw these new characteristics reflected in their sons.

Eighty percent of the reported adult group responses indicated that it was necessary for their sons to get outside knowledge from the extension agent as it is of a scientific

nature and would help to change the behaviour of the boys as well as improve their skill in farming.

Fifty-six percent of Sadiq members' parent groups reported that they would like to see their sons remain in agriculture. Twenty-five percent of the adult groups not involved with the Sadiq Center felt that they would like their sons to remain in agriculture. Table 10 illustrates the difference in attitude of these two groups.

This difference can possibly be explained by noting that the Sadiq Centers have initially attracted youth from the upper socio-economic levels of the village. Families from these levels would have more contact with the agricultural agent since they are usually involved in village leadership. Rogers has divided society according to its willingness to adopt new ideas and would define these farmers as "Innovators" or "Early Adopters".[1] These farmers would be the more affluent farmers who probably derive a reasonably good standard of living from farming. They therefore are not opposed to the idea of having their sons involved in agriculture in the future as it has provided them with a comfortable lifestyle. The farmers who were not involved in Sadiq may have been representative of the group of farmers who are slow to adopt new ideas, and in the changing agriculture sector, have found themselves struggling to make a living. This group has

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[1] Everett M. Rogers and F.F. Shoemaker, Communication of Innovations (New York: Free Press, 1971), pp. 180-185.

TABLE 10

ATTITUDES OF RURAL ADULTS TOWARDS HAVING THEIR SONS REMAIN IN AGRICULTURE

	Groups Favoring Sons Remain in Agriculture	Groups Not Favoring Sons Remain in Agriculture	Groups Not Sure Where They Want Sons to Go	No Reply	Total
	Percent and Number (in Brackets)				
Adults involved in a Sadiq Center	56 (18)	25 (8)	3 (1)	16 (5)	100
Adults not involved in a Sadiq Center	25 (8)	28 (9)	13 (4)	34 (11)	100

been defined by Rogers as the "Late Majority" or "Laggards".[1] These farmers have generally found agriculture to be a less than rewarding life-style and do not want to see their sons remain in the same role.

These data have some relation to the findings of an education study done in Malaysia.[2] This study rated rural family heads according to their "achievement" levels. Achievement was defined as using new agricultural practices, being judged industrious by one's peers, and being able to support one's family well. The study noted that high achieving fathers perceived education in a broad context, and not as a preparation for a specific job. Lower achieving fathers had a narrow image of education and saw it only as a means to a city job. The high achieving fathers in this study would probably compare to those fathers in Iraq who were classified as innovators or early adopters. These fathers would also take a broader look at the potential of the rural sector and realize that the education and training the youth receive could be preparing them for a better life in the rural area. The fathers not involved in Sadiq and classified as late majority or laggards could be compared to the lower achieving fathers who are dissatisfied with their life in the rural

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[1] Ibid., p. 184.

[2] J. Madison Seymour, "The Rural School as an Acculturing Institution: The Iban of Malaysia," Human Organization, Vol. 33, No. 3 (1974), p. 277.

sector and who want their sons to leave agriculture and move to the city. The results in Iraq therefore seem to be consistent with results obtained in other parts of the world. The attitudes of rural adults as a whole with regards to participation or non-participation in the program are an important consideration.

Attitudes of Youth Involved in the Sadiq Program

Members were asked to list, from a series of selected reasons what their personal reason was for joining the Sadiq Program. The results of this question are summarized in Table 11.

TABLE 11

REASONS WHY MEMBERS JOINED A SADIQ CENTER

Reason	Percent and Number (in Brackets)
1. Wanted to work on an agricultural project	45 (14)
2. Parents wanted them to join	20 (6)
3. Recreation and fun of being in a group	14 (5)
4. Occupy leisure time	12 (4)
5. Tours and trips offered by center	9 (3)
Total	100 (32)

This table shows the high level of young peoples' interest to be involved in some definite program which provides them with

a small specific task within the sphere of their environment and with the facilities and guidance to carry it out.

Thirty-five percent of the member groups expressed a wish to remain in the rural area and be farmers when they are adults. The balance wanted to be professionals (teachers or doctors), government officials, work in industry, or become soldiers. The youth have aspirations towards these urban centered jobs as they are the only professions with which they come in contact outside of their home environment. If there were more successful role models active within the rural sector, these could provide models for the youth to follow and more of them might remain within the rural sector. This situation again shows the interdependence between education, migration and overall rural development.

Since 65 percent of the member groups felt they would like to leave the rural area and only 45 percent of the parent groups had the same feeling, there is a source of possible unrest within the family and the rural area in general. The youth have some dissatisfaction with their present life-style and see migration to the urban sector as the answer to their problems. This concern is fostered in part by their increased awareness which is developed through formal and non-formal education systems that equate success with specific types of jobs only available outside the rural sector. The conflict arises since the fathers, being largely unschooled, are relatively more satisfied with their lives and see it as a natural occupation for their sons. The minor improvements which have

occurred in the rural sector have provided some incentive and satisfaction compared to conditions of the past -- they can see things "getting better".

The majority of members in the Sadiq Centers, 81 percent of the groups, were enjoying all or a particular aspect of the Sadiq Center. Of the non-member groups interviewed, 75 percent of the groups were aware of Sadiq Center activities and 63 percent felt they would like to be involved in the future.

The members of the center enjoyed their agricultural projects, the pride of involvement and ownership, and the sense of responsibility which was stimulated. These have become important elements of the Sadiq Program. The learning they were involved in was within a familiar environment and on a familiar subject and for these reasons it had a chance of practical implementation.

Although Sadiq is at present basically an agricultural education center, other important aspects of rural development such as literacy, health, nutrition, housing and community living can become a part of the center's planned programs.

Sadiq Centers Versus the Formal Education System

In the survey it was discovered that 83 percent of the members of Sadiq Centers were also attending school. The responses of the 17 percent of member groups who were not in school are stated in Table 12. When asked why the members attended the Sadiq Centers and not the school, the main response was that the Sadiq activities related directly to

TABLE 12

REASONS WHY NON-SCHOOL SADIQ MEMBERS DID NOT ATTEND SCHOOL

Reason	Percent and Number (in Brackets)
1. Involved in farm work	45 (15)
2. No desire on behalf of members	18 (6)
3. No school for them to attend	26 (8)
4. Parents won't allow youth to attend	12 (4)
5. Financial limitations prevented school attendance	9 (3)
Total	110* (36)

* The total exceeds 100 percent as some of the groups responded to more than one category. It is suspected there is some overlap between reason 1 and 4.

agriculture. Other reasons for being involved in Sadiq were that the center was close to their home and the Sadiq projects produced some financial return.

From these results it seems that although 17 percent of member groups were kept away from school to help their parents with farming work, these same boys were able to attend the Sadiq Center. The reasons given for this were: the center was close to their home, and the agriculture projects which yielded some profit could be taken as an extension of the regular farm duties. It also appeared that the members experi-

enced some real enjoyment from the Sadiq activities, something they could not get from school.

Of the rural youth who were not members of the Sadiq Centers, only 72 percent attended school. Seventy percent of those not in school spent their time in agricultural work and 30 percent had leisure time. We can assume that those families who send their children to school can also see the benefits of the Sadiq Centers; therefore, youth attending school have more encouragement and predisposition to join the Sadiq Program. Those families who keep their children home from school as a labor source are also less inclinced to let them join a Sadiq Center, although 62 percent of these youth groups expressed a desire to join in the future. The learning of agricultural skills was within a farm family sphere of understanding and was therefore more acceptable for non-school youth than the formal school system. This example is one illustration of an important principle of successful non-formal education; that is, it provides a learning experience in close proximity to meaningful work and to normal living conditions.[1]

Regional Implications of Sadiq Center Establishment

The survey was conducted throughout Iraq and encompassed

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[1] C.S. Brembeck, "The Strategic Uses of Comparative Learning Environments," Non-Formal Education as an Alternative to Schooling, Non-Formal Education Discussion Papers (Michigan State University, 1974), p. 6.

different geographical and cultural areas. One of the concerns of the survey was to determine whether there were regional differences in the establishment and adoption of various projects. In an attempt to measure this the locations of north, central and south were compared to the actual number of projects per club, the type of projects and the adoption of the projects by the parents. There were no major difference found in any of these elements except in the level of adoption of the poultry project as shown in Table 13.

TABLE 13

REGIONAL COMPARISON OF BENEFITS RECEIVED FROM POULTRY PROJECTS

Location	Groups Which Benefited from Poultry Project	Groups Which Did Not Benefit from Poultry Project	Total
	Percent and Number (in Brackets)		
North and Central Region (13 Centers)	31 (10)	9 (3)	40 (13)
Southern Region (19 Centers)	26 (8)	34 (11)	60 (19)

In this table the north and central regions were grouped together to give a more equal comparison because of the similarity of climate and culture. The table shows that when the north and central regions were compared to the south-

ern regions, the proportion of groups which reported they had benefited from the poultry project, were almost equal. When these same groups were compared for those who did not feel they benefited, the south had a much larger percentage of groups who felt they had not benefited from the poultry project. This response may be caused by the farmers either not being interested in learning about poultry or having seen a poultry demonstration which was not successful, or both of these reasons.

Since the south of Iraq is extremely hot during the summer, it is not conducive to village level poultry production. This caused some of the poultry demonstrations to fail, thereby providing a negative experience. Another reason is that farmers do not traditionally raise poultry because of the adverse climate and they were not willing to utilize the improved methods. In the north and central regions, where poultry production is more common and the climate more conducive, there were many successful demonstrations and farmers no doubt gained some information from the project. The results of this analysis helped the administrators in Iraq to make a decision regarding the poultry project; that is, the emphasis for this project would be centered in the north and central region and not in the south until more research had been done on improved housing.

This is one example of the type of information which the Sadiq survey provided on the regional implications of project location.

The Sadiq Program as a Stimulus to Employment

The primary source of employment in the rural sector of Iraq is agriculture. As in many agriculturally based countries, farm employment follows a seasonal fluctuation pattern. There are periods of shortages of labor and other periods of underemployment where the available labor is not being utilized to its fullest extent.[1] In many areas this type of underemployment occurs because of the use of traditional farming methods. These traditional methods, however, are efficient, considering the existing level of technology. David Hopper, through his investigations in India, has shown that farmers in developing countries show rational economic behavior in their allocation of resources.[2] Therefore, if new technologies are introduced, the farmers will respond if the innovation will provide them with tangible economic benefits. The Sadiq Program has provided an outlet for innovation in the agriculture sector and the Sadiq survey has shown that the parents of members have reported definite benefits from some of their sons' innovative project material.

The adopted practices introduced through the Sadiq Program provide a short and long run employment stimulus. In the short run, the immediate adoption of labor intensive

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[1] A.P. Thirwall, Growth and Development (London: MacMillan Press, 1972), pp. 84-97.

[2] W.D. Hopper, Resource Allocation on a Sample of Indian Farms, Paper No. 6104 (University of Chicago, Office of Agricultural Economic Research, 1961).

technologies would provide more man hours of work throughout the year and thus increase the number of persons actively involved in agriculture. An example could be the vegetable project, which allowed some type of crop to be grown year round, thus increasing the number of man hours required to manage the crops.

In the long run, assuming government policies promote labor intensive technology, the Sadiq Program will improve the agricultural skills and knowledge of the young people, thus increasing their willingness to adopt new ideas, which may increase their level of productivity. This increased productivity could occur as a result of the availability of young farmers trained to utilize existing resources combined with the availability of supplemental modern agricultural inputs. These combined factors will create a demand for marketing and distribution systems for agricultural inputs and output. This increase in agricultural activity will provide more non-farm employment in the operation and support of these new systems in addition to the increased on-farm employment. Skills in agriculture, leadership, money management and bookkeeping learned in the Sadiq Centers will give its members the lead in both these new areas of employment.

Some examples of the type of changes the Sadiq Program has stimulated to increase agricultural activity were discovered in the survey. Of the members who were involved in the poultry project, 55 percent of their families did not normally eat eggs. Thirty percent of the families where

members had bee hives had not previously had access to honey. Twenty-seven percent of the families began to eat vegetables regularly when their son was involved in a vegetable project. These new enterprises provide new opportunities for diversification in the farm family and by stimulating new and expanded activities in the rural sector, they also expand opportunities for short and long term employment.

Through its role as a tool of the extension service, the Sadiq Program plays a role in influencing social and economic conditions in rural Iraq. If these innovations are followed through and developed through government policies designed to support them, it will promote a more diversified rural sector with broader opportunities for employment.

Results of Survey of Government Officials

Involvement of Officials

As mentioned already, the survey covered 72 government officials in 9 provinces; 53 percent of these officials were at the supervisory or director level, the rest were village level workers. Over one-half of the officials had been in government service for less than five years. This large proportion of young officials reflects the rapid growth of the civil service and the increasing number of college and technical school graduates. Of the officials interviewed, 35 percent had attended a specialized training course dealing with the development of rural youth centers. Table 14 shows the

amount of time reported by agricultural agents as having been spent working with Sadiq Centers.

TABLE 14
AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT BY AGRICULTURAL AGENTS WORKING WITH SADIQ CENTERS

Percent of Their Working Time	Extension Agents Reporting this Involvement Percent and Number (in Brackets)
20	28 (6)
30	25 (5)
More than 30 but less than 50	28 (6)
Total	81 (17)

This table shows that while not all agents interviewed were working with Sadiq Centers, others were spending a considerable portion of their time involved with the program.

Of the staff at a supervisory level, 31 percent of those interviewed spent up to 75 percent of their time with Sadiq work. These figures show a higher involvement of supervisory staff than field staff in the Sadiq Program. This could have occurred in the following ways:

(a) Field workers are often new to Sadiq work and require on-the-job training. Thus supervisors must spend more time with them until they learn to handle the program.

(b) A supervisor is usually responsible for a number

of field workers and if time is spent with each one in relation to the Sadiq Program, the total time spent increases over that of an individual worker.

Eleven percent of officials at the director's level reported that 10 percent of the business in their offices related to the Sadiq Centers. Thirty percent reported a level of 15 percent. An important consideration is that 35 percent of the directors reported an increase in Sadiq activity over the past six months.

These figures show that the Sadiq Program has been incorporated as part of the normal work load of extension and cooperative officials. Even when an allowance is made for a bias in the questionnaire (the author believes that some officials over-estimated the amount of time they actually spent with the Sadiq Program since they may have considered the Sadiq Survey to be a personal evaluation), government officials were still reporting a significant amount of time working with youth through the centers. This is important since the regularity of the program is vital in the initial stages.

Attitudes of Government Officials Towards the Sadiq Program

Because of the fact that the Sadiq projects were introducing new agricultural methods and varieties to the rural area, 67 percent of the officials felt that the Sadiq Program was making a significant contribution to agricultural development in their area. The fact that the Sadiq Centers stressed

cooperative work was also noted as important as it prepared youth to take a more enlightened role in the agricultural cooperative movement and the state farm system which was being developed.

The officials recognized the importance of increasing the quantity and quality of agricultural production but 81 percent considered it important to give agricultural training to youth as opposed to strictly concentrating on production projects. Thirty-three percent of the officials stressed that this training, although without immediate returns, would help to increase production in the future. One positive observation with regard to production was that by training young people in modern agricultural methods, the information would be passed on to their parents, the active producers. This would stimulate production increases in the short run among the present generation of farmers as well as in the long term when the youth themselves become producers.

Fifty-five percent of the officials favoured a long term planned education program for the agriculture sector and saw Sadiq as a vital element of this plan. Their argument for education was that the participants in agricultural production in cooperative societies or state farms must understand some of the basic elements behind increased production. This will allow them to become technically competent in implementing improved methods rather than having to blindly follow others.

Although some of the major agricultural development pro-

jects are not yet completed (irrigation and drainage, collected villages), 85 percent of the officials felt that the Sadiq Program should continue its work of educating young people. They felt that since the Sadiq projects are usually small-scale, they could be successfully carried out without having the large development projects completed. The officials stressed that the Sadiq Program could, through its skill and leadership training, assist in the rapid and orderly completion of these projects. Ten percent of the officials opposed the Sadiq Centers. They felt that since the program was to be an example to youth of improved agricultural methods, the projects must have, in the beginning, all the necessary modern inputs to ensure that each project begun is successful. In promoting small-scale, labor intensive projects, the Sadiq Program faced a certain amount of opposition from officials who felt that Sadiq projects should be examples of modern capital intensive methods. These officials were in fact promoting modern agricultural production units where youth could at best be informed laborers. The Sadiq concept of learning-by-doing and small-scale village units was eventually accepted by the majority of officials throughout the country.

Attitudes Towards Sadiq as an Educational Method

"Adults and youth must be literate (reading and writing) before they can participate effectively in an extension program." This was the opinion held by 46 percent of the offi-

cials. However, 51 percent felt that extension activities could be carried on successfully with an illiterate population. (Illiteracy in Iraq is approximately 85 percent among rural adults).

Forty-one percent of those interviewed believed that literate farmers can accept information easier and therefore increase production more rapidly. Those farmers that have been literate for some time tend to be more broad minded and more open to new concepts. Most officials agreed with this general statement but those who felt that illiterate farmers could be effectively worked with stressed that traditional methods would not work and that varied methods of communication such as films, slides, T.V., and radio could be utilized. The problem of illiteracy will only be solved in the long term and it should be taught in conjunction with all extension programs, but care should be taken not to let it become a limiting factor in present programs. The Sadiq policy is that the centers provide the central focus and continuity which is necessary for successful literacy training,[1] and a form of functional literacy could be combined with the Sadiq Center Program. Youth learn rapidly when they are involved in an activity which they enjoy; the Sadiq Center provides this format. Although there was a divergence of opinion among

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[1] Richard O. Niehoff and Bernard Wilder, Non-Formal Education in Ethiopia: Literacy Programs, Non-Formal Education Discussion Papers No. 5 (East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1973), p. 21.

officials, the attitude taken towards literacy in the Sadiq Program would seem to satisfy both sides by facilitating the development of a high level of literacy.

An overwhelming percentage of officials (91 percent) felt that work with youth should be part of the work load of an agricultural agent. The officials felt it allowed them to work with the whole farm family (20 percent) and others replied that Sadiq was an effective extension tool as the skills learned by the youth were often passed on to the parents (31 percent). The Sadiq Program then became an important element of the agricultural education program.

With regards to formal schooling for Sadiq members, 29 percent of the officials felt that the program should concentrate on youth attending school as they are more highly motivated and will accept and absorb the presented information more effectively. Thirty-three percent felt that non-school youth should be the focus of attention as they are more likely to remain in agriculture and would therefore benefit more from the practical agricultural training. Another 29 percent felt that both groups should receive equal attention as the learning in Sadiq is not only agricultural. They felt Sadiq could play a role in developing leadership and in creating a healthy attitude towards cooperation which would be of use in any segment of society.

The policy of the Sadiq Program has been to include both school and non-school youth. They were found to complement each other in the center. Since the initial centers

established were in villages which had relatively well developed facilities, many of the members were attending school. As the program moves further out into the rural areas there will be a larger proportion of non-school youth in the centers. The centers may provide the only organized learning experience many non-school youth will ever have and since the training will be in agriculture, it will be directly applicable to their present life-style. The Sadiq Program realizes that in its initial stages it is reaching mostly school youth. It is, however, an important policy priority to expand rapidly into areas where there are no schools. The design of its visual teaching material and special credit programs is intended to promote the involvement of non-school youth in the immediate future.

Officials in general thought that Sadiq should continue to expand as facilities become available. They saw Sadiq contributing to the completion of some of the large development projects which are presently underway in Iraq by increasing the general education level of rural families. With regards to agricultural production, the officials felt that Sadiq would stimulate a small increase of production in the short run and contribute significantly to production increases in the future.

Training of Agricultural Agents

During the development of the Sadiq Program, special care was taken to provide training courses for agricultural

agents who would be involved with the Sadiq Program in the future. A series of regional training workshops (5 days each) were conducted in several locations in Iraq and approximately 120 agents attended at least one of these workshops; 33 percent of the officials interviewed in the survey had attended a training workshop.

The survey attempted to measure whether the training received by the agents had significantly altered their attitude towards the program as compared to those who had not received any training. To accomplish this, the responses to some major questions were compared to detect any major difference between those who had received some training and those who had not. This comparison is summarized in Table 15. This table shows that there are no consistent differences in attitude between the trained and untrained officials. In questions two and four there seemed to be a larger proportion of positive support for the program on the part of the trained officials. This may indicate that the training program has produced a positive attitude towards the Sadiq Program. This trend is not strongly evident throughout the data so it is difficult to declare that a difference does exist; however, the author personally believes that there is a more positive attitude among the trained officials. The questions which were examined may not have been specific enough to the Sadiq Program to produce a strong divergence. This could also mean there is a general attitude of acceptance towards the program by all officials and that the training has merely

TABLE 15

COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES OF TRAINED AND UNTRAINED OFFICIALS IN SOME POLICY DESIGN ISSUES

Question	Response	Attended Training	Did Not Attend Training
		Percent and Number (in Brackets)	
1. Has Sadiq made a significant contribution to rural development?	Yes	71 (17)	68 (31)
2. Must youth be literate for effective extension programs?	Yes	50 (12)	38 (17)
3. Agricultural training for youth cannot increase production immediately so is of little use.	No	83 (20)	77 (35)
4. Are production priorities more important than extension activities?	No	79 (19)	55 (25)

provided them with the specific skills to put the program into action.

Attitudes of Government Officials Towards Sadiq

In an attempt to discover if there was a variation in attitude among officials, two elements of the survey were analyzed. The following suspected profiles were analyzed:

(a) Is there a difference in attitude towards the Sadiq Program between the field level workers and the administrative level of agricultural workers?

(b) Is there a difference in attitude towards the Sadiq Program among officials in the three main regions of the country?

In order to determine whether there was a significant relationship between the attitudes of the field staff and the administrative staff, some comparisons of response were considered for some of the major questions in the survey. This comparison is summarized in Table 16. The results of this table show that there is no major difference in attitude between field level and government officials. On some of the issues, for example question one, the officials as a whole were almost equally divided; however, this wide division was almost equal when field and administrative staff were compared. The author would have expected a wider divergence between these two groups. Many of the administrative officers tended to philosophize about the ideal way to solve problems in the rural areas. They tended to think in terms of grand-

TABLE 16

COMPARISON OF FIELD AND ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICIALS' ATTITUDES ON POLICY DESIGN ISSUES

Question	Response	Field	Administrative
		Percent and Number (in Brackets)	
1. Do youth have to be literate for extension programs to be effective?	No	47 (16)	55 (21)
2. Agricultural training for youth cannot increase production immediately so is of little use.	No	44 (32)	36 (26)
3. Is the Sadiq Program making a significant contribution to rural development?	Yes	70 (24)	68 (26)

fose projects which if operated properly, would easily increase agricultural production. On the other hand, the field staff who must implement projects, can often see that small-scale educational projects are a necessity to encourage mass participation in increasing agricultural production. The close agreement may possibly stem from the type of question asked and an investigation of other areas may have brought a sharper divergence in attitude.

Another aspect of the survey which was analyzed was the effect of location in Iraq on the attitudes of the officials towards the Sadiq Program. The responses from several questions were compared using the same method as in Tables 15 and 16 to determine what effect the physical location in the country (north, central, south) would have on the attitudes of the officials. With the exception of two questions, the responses compared showed no major regional differences in attitude.

On the question of literacy there was a difference between the regions; this difference can be seen in Table 17. This table shows that officials in the central region feel more strongly than those in other regions that their extension programs will not be successful unless the people receiving the program are literate.

This fact does not create serious problems for national planning although it may mean that training sessions in this region should perhaps focus on this problem to see how best to deal with it. The reason for this divergence in the central

TABLE 17

COMPARISON BY REGION OF THE RESPONSES OF GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS TOWARDS THE NECESSITY OF HAVING FARMERS LITERATE FOR EXTENSION PROGRAMS

Location	Must be Literate	Not Necessary to be Literate	No Reply	Total
	Regional Percent and Number (in Brackets)			
North	23 (5)	68 (15)	9 (2)	100 (22)
Central	77 (13)	17 (3)	6 (1)	100 (17)
South	39 (13)	57 (19)	3 (1)	100 (33)

region may be explained partially by the concentration of services around the capital city of Baghdad which is located in this region. Farmers in the areas adjacent to the capital are often highly specialized in the production of a few particular products being supplied to the city. This climate of specialization and competitive marketing often necessitates some degree of literacy and awareness. Therefore this group of farmers would be more receptive to innovations presented by extension workers as they might increase their production and thus their competitive position. When extension workers work with illiterate farmers in the central region, they will not have the same success rate using the same methods as with literate farmers. They would thus consider literacy necessary to operate what they feel is a successful extension program.

In the other regions of Iraq where illiteracy is wide-

spread, extension agents are facing the same problem in all parts of the region. They must devise methods to carry out their extension work in spite of these limitations. They therefore possibly see illiteracy as one of the obstacles which must be overcome as extension agents and not a necessary condition of a successful program.

Another area where there were some regional differences regarded which type of youth the Sadiq Center should concentrate on. The results are summarized in Table 18.

TABLE 18

REGIONAL COMPARISON OF OPINIONS OF TYPE OF YOUTH TO BE GIVEN PRIORITY IN SADIQ PROGRAMS

Region	Youth Attending School	Youth Not Attending School	Both	No Reply	Total
	Regional Percent and Number (in Brackets)				
North	32 (7)	22 (5)	32 (7)	14 (3)	100 (22)
Central	26 (6)	29 (5)	29 (5)	6 (1)	100 (17)
South	24 (8)	42 (14)	28 (9)	6 (2)	100 (33)
Iraq	29 (21)	34 (24)	29 (21)	8 (6)	100 (72)

This table shows that the southern region puts a much greater importance on the involvement of non-school youth in the Sadiq Program. The author cannot completely explain this difference except to say that there were several centers in

region which had only non-school members. The officials concerned with these centers may have seen positive results in the centers and thus saw this group as being of highest priority. This concern for non-school youth in the south will facilitate the expansion of centers for non-school youth; this is a high policy priority of the Sadiq Program.

Government officials generally supported the Sadiq Program and the training it provided for youth. This was a major factor in the rapid growth and success of the Sadiq Program in Iraq.

Limitations of the Sadiq Survey

The two surveys have provided a great deal of information for use in future planning of the Sadiq Program. The results of the survey fulfilled the original objectives although some limitations are recognized:

1. The sample in the survey of Sadiq Centers was too small to allow a detailed statistical analysis to be carried out.

2. The interview schedule design which was geared towards providing information to Iraq Government policy makers was not completely suitable for generalization into a model for the development of Rural Youth Programs. The fact that the survey was designed by government and administered by government personnel may have restricted the type and quality of answers received. Because of the fear of reprisal from the government in Iraq, the

people interviewed may have given the "expected or correct" answer. This would be especially true in a small group interview. Another factor which could have biased the interview process is the Arabic custom of making guests comfortable and happy; in this regard the interviewees would not freely relate their negative feelings on first meeting with the interviewers.

3. The use of group interviews had some drawbacks although it did allow a larger sample to be interviewed. The intervewers tended to record the consensus of the group either positive or negative, a better method would have been to have recorded as well the extent of minority opinion within each group. It was also possible that among the adult groups there was considerable swaying of opinion by influential members of the group.

4. The survey attempted to assess the influence of the Sadiq Program on those involved in it compared to those who were not involved. The segment of the interview schedule dealing with rural people not involved in the Sadiq Program was not extensive enough to provide an accurate comparison.

5. The survey failed to explore some significant issues which could have made the results more complete. Some examples of issues missed were:

(a) Linking the rate of adoption to increased productivity of the family farm.

(b) The relationship between Sadiq membership and

economic and social status.

6. Planned steps were taken to train the interview staff to reduce bias and inconsistency in the final results. It was evident in some of the results that the interviewers were not getting down to the real issues being sought and were collecting "token" responses. This type of interviewing probably provided an accurate measure of the general trends but did not always give exact reasons for the response or provide alternative suggestions.

7. Due to the author's personal involvement in the Sadiq Program in Iraq, there may be some bias in the interpretation of survey results. Because the author was aware of the background situation, he may have made a less than objective interpretation of some of the survey data.

The surveys contributed to this thesis in that they indicated an important developmental stage of the Sadiq Program in Iraq. The surveys provided a good measure of the attitudes held by people in various sectors of the program. These results could be incorporated into future project design and training programs.

In general, the survey supported the program as it is presently operating; in a few areas there was some criticism but not any major concerns. In future research some of the issues mentioned above should be dealt with and efforts made to more precisely analyze the strengths and weaknesses of

the program.

There was a definite indication that the parents of Sadiq members were generally pleased with their son's involvement with the program. Parents also felt members had a more positive attitude towards agriculture and were more knowledgeable on technical agricultural matters. There was also some indication that parents allowed their sons to attend the Sadiq Center although they did not send them to school. They felt the agricultural training was more useful than school work.

The fact that Sadiq projects are related to problems of the district and are carried out by the members close to their home was shown to be important. The survey showed that a substantial number of farmers accepted innovative ideas from the Sadiq projects and began to practice them. The agricultural agents felt the Sadiq Program provided a valuable source for introducing innovative ideas into the rural sector.

Since farmers adopted practices from the Sadiq project, the resulting innovative materials and methods served to increase agricultural production. This increase, which came about through increased use of available resources, will require more man-hours of labor in agriculture, which may be translated into increased employment in agriculture and related industries.

As a result of a preliminary analysis, it was determined that there are no great differences in attitude towards

the centers among various levels of government officials or in different regions of the country. The acceptance of the Sadiq Program also seemed to be similar in all regions of the country.

Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has provided a discussion of some of the major results of the Sadiq Survey. Not all survey results were discussed in this chapter; some of the data contained in Appendix 1 also has important implications for the Sadiq Program.

This chapter of the Sadiq Survey was intended to accomplish two goals:

1. To describe how to design, conduct and analyze a survey of a non-formal education program such as the Sadiq Program.
2. To highlight some of the more important issues which policy makers in any country must be concerned about in the development of rural youth training programs.

The major results can be summarized as follows:

The Sadiq Program seems to be involved actively in the modernization process in Iraq; there is favourable support for the program from members, parents and government officials. There is a concensus of opinion that rural youth should be involved in an agricultural training program to provide them with the skills to be future farmers or other rural workers.

The last chapter brings together the concepts, issues and principles dealt with in the thesis and provides a concise summary and guidelines which may be of use to planners in other developing countries in designing a program similar to the Sadiq Center Program.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

Youth and Development

Developing countries are now realizing the necessity of promoting the concepts of self-reliance and participation in their development programs. The agricultural sector of most of these countries has been ignored for many years and educational programs for rural young people are now being considered as one method to improve their situation.

The large numbers of youth in the rural areas could provide a strong development force if they received a relevant rural education and were given the facilities to stimulate rural development. The formal schooling system which presently operates in these countries has been unsuccessful in solving the problems of migration and lack of employment.

Non-formal education is an education process geared to specific learning needs and to a specific learning clientele. Non-formal education stimulates awareness and potential of the rural sector and thus creates more opportunities for self-employment or wage employment and therefore decreases the propensity for rural youth to migrate to urban centers. We can consider non-formal education a necessary condition of rural development but by no means a sufficient

condition.

The Sadiq Program in Iraq

The Iraq government has been involved in the development of a non-formal rural youth training program. This thesis has described in depth the establishment and development procedures by which the Iraq government stimulated the growth of the Sadiq Program.

In Iraq it was found to be helpful to use the early experimental work to develop guidelines and constraints for the expansion of the program to a natural scale. It was also beneficial to design a program planning system specifically for the Sadiq Program, to enable government officials to present a consistent program to the youth.

After the Sadiq Program operated for three years the Iraq government decided to conduct an evaluation of what was happening in the rural areas and how the original philosophies of the program were holding up. This survey proved to be a valuable exercise for Iraq as it generated a considerable amount of data which will be useful in future policy formulation. If a program similar to Sadiq is adopted in another country serious consideration should be given to conducting an evaluation survey in the early stages of development.

Although rural youth education programs are presently being operated in many developing countries, the experiences of Iraq and the analysis of its program may be useful in the

organization or reorganization of similar programs in other developing countries.

The Sadiq Program as an Example of a Rural Youth Training Program

The Sadiq Program in Iraq is a new and rapidly growing program at the moment. There is a great deal of interest in the program both at the village level and among government officials. It is impossible to postulate what will happen to the program in the long run. There are several elements of the present economic and political situation of Iraq which have contributed to the success of the program.

1. Iraq has experienced an unusual period of government stability (Baath Socialists have been in power since 1969) that has allowed the government to begin dealing with the problems of the country.
2. The Iraq government has only recently begun to orient its policies towards a more balanced form of development by increasing expenditures on rural development rather than concentrating only on the industrial sector.
3. Iraq has been experiencing an increase in its sense of nationalism which has inspired young people and government officials to become concerned about social and educational issues which will benefit their country.
4. The world oil situation and Iraq's recent move to nationalize her oil production has vastly increased the

flow of foreign exchange (Petrodollars) into the country thereby providing ample funds for rural development projects.

5. World political instability and the world food problem have forced Iraq government planners to move towards policies of self-sufficiency. This means an increased emphasis on agricultural production and a natural support for programs such as the Sadiq Centers.

These issues have played a large role in the course which the Sadiq Program has followed. Those interested in adopting some of the Sadiq principles for their own use must be aware of the context in which these principles arose before applying them to their own situation.

Significant Lessons from the Sadiq Program

Membership in Sadiq Centers

The results of the survey showed that it is beneficial to work with both school going and non-school going youth in the Sadiq Centers. Presently members of the centers tend to be mostly students but since the non-school youth will more likely remain in agriculture, it will be an important priority to involve more non-school youth in the future. These youth will be the hardest to involve and a special emphasis in this area should be given by planners and field workers. The Sadiq Center's membership should represent a good cross-section of the youth present in an area (school and non-school

youth in a typical area or all school youth in a developed area or all non-school youth in an area with no school). A balanced number of non-school and school youth seems to be the optimum type of group for Sadiq work.

It was generally agreed in Iraq that the most progress towards developing positive attitudes and skills related to rural life was to be made with the non-school youth who will more likely remain in the rural sector. As the rural sector develops, however, there will undoubtedly be an increase in the number of school graduates who remain in the rural sector.

The age group involved in Sadiq was from 10 to 18 years. At the present time, there is a fairly equal representation up to about 16 years; but there are few members beyond this age. If the projects are developed so as to provide constant interest and challenge for the different age groups, the author feels this fairly equal distribution of ages will continue.

Girls in the Sadiq Program

It has been difficult to do much work with girls because of the severe restrictions placed on them by their families. In areas close to Baghdad, where there were female extension agents, some positive results were being obtained. The growth of Centers for girls depends on the rate at which the Home Economics section of the Extension Division expands. Because of their heavy involvement in agricultural practices, it was thought to be beneficial to train women in agricultural skills

as well as the traditional homemaking skills in the Sadiq Centers. The expansion of the Sadiq Program for girls was an important priority for the overall rural development movement in Iraq.

Sadiq Center Organization

The majority of Sadiq Centers were organized within cooperative societies which provides a central focus for the program. With the government's strong emphasis on development of the cooperative movement, the Sadiq Program was in the forefront of rural development activities. This strong emphasis has been an important element in Sadiq's success and this fact should be considered in the development of a similar program in any country. This successful experience in Iraq can be summarized to mean that in establishing a national rural youth program it should be affiliated with the strong institutional elements which already exist in the rural area. Although the Sadiq program had its own philosophy and objectives the benefits of operating within the cooperative structure were numerous.

There were some initial problems in establishing a relationship with the cooperatives. The establishment of a system of cooperatives was a very political issue as the Socialist government of Iraq saw the cooperatives as a first step in organizing the farmers into a system of state farms. There were many zealous party workers (Baath Socialist Party) who would have liked to make the Sadiq Program an active poli-

tical group. After considerable discussion it was decided that the Sadiq Program should be allowed to develop within the cooperatives with the agricultural training emphasis originally planned. The party workers realized that the focal point of an agricultural project was a stronger organizational element than a set of ideological objectives. This example points out the necessity of keeping a simple highly relevant emphasis in the development of a program such as Sadiq.

Training and Role of Agricultural Agents

The Iraq experience showed that it is critical how the agricultural agents supervise the Sadiq Centers. In the centers where the agents have a regular program of visits, the projects and activities seem to operate smoothly. For centers which are well established, one visit per week for regular meetings plus special visits to provide project materials seems to be sufficient. In newly established centers and in centers composed mainly of non-school youth, a more concentrated program is necessary. In Iraq, the agents involved in a center spend approximately from 10 to 15 percent of their time on Sadiq activities, the rest of their time is directed to other extension activities. The Rural Youth Specialists are the only officials involved full time with the Sadiq Program.

The training of agricultural agents is one of the critical elements of the whole Sadiq Program and it is important

that an ongoing program of pre-service and in-service training is followed. Since the Sadiq concept is a new one in Iraq, most agents require some degree of training and orientation before they can implement the program effectively. The agents training involved exposure to the philosophy and objectives of Sadiq work, experiences in project design and center operation, program planning for Sadiq Centers, leadership training skills related to youth and local leaders and teaching methods to be used with rural youth. It was also found to be a useful training experience to allow an inexperienced agricultural agent to work for one or two months with a more experienced agent working with a Sadiq Center, in addition to whatever formal training he receives. After completing a training course and having some experience in working with Sadiq Centers. the agent was also given a Guidance Manual which provided a complete source of information on procedures, project design, teaching methods and planning.

In the training of agricultural agents, the Iraq experience showed that the agents must be given specific training in non-formal education techniques. This aspect of training was just beginning in Iraq and involves training agents to become facilitators for learning rather than lecturers. This was accomplished by training in the use of demonstrations, audio-visual equipment, and the whole sequenced learning process implicit in the program planning.

The agricultural agent's function was to stimulate development of centers with as much local involvement as

possible. The technical input which he provided was a focus around which the center operates and Iraq experience has shown that this emphasis should be maintained in some form for a considerable period of time.

Training of Local Leaders

Training programs for local leaders were found to be successful if they were practical and continuous. The officials in Iraq discovered it was better to have a series of short term specific training sessions than to plan extensive long term programs. The local leaders have only a limited amount of time to spend with Sadiq work and are not highly mobile; they prefer training on location for a half day to one day period rather than having to travel away from home for a long period of time. Local leaders must of course be involved from the very beginning in planning and establishing the Sadiq Center, and given specific responsibilities in the center to strengthen their association to the center. The training provided to leaders in Iraq was centered in the following areas:

1. A detailed explanation of the Sadiq philosophy of learning-by-doing.
2. A description of the relevant projects.
3. Explanation of meeting procedures and an introduction to program planning.
4. Description of the supervision required for members projects.

5. Explanation of organizational rules in which the leaders can be involved.

It was by considering how effectively local leaders carry out the responsibilities they assume that determines what type of a training series is planned by the extension agent and supervisors. Local leaders should be encouraged to take a stronger and stronger role in the Sadiq Center with the objective of having them control the center operation.

Experimental Rural Youth Centers

The experimental or trial centers established when the program began were vital to the future success of the Sadiq Program in Iraq. These centers should be scattered to reach the main geographical and cultural sectors in the country. Iraq experience showed that because of a lack of proven research by which projects can be designed to be more feasible for Sadiq Centers, there were some centers whose projects were not entirely successful. The lessons learned from these trial centers will be of great value in future planning, but in the short run may have detrimental affects on some of the experimental centers. When operating an extension program, it is necessary to have proven research to introduce to the youth. When the testing must occur within the Sadiq project, the failures will be disappointing to the members and there should be some concessions made to these centers to keep them operating. Of the six original Sadiq Centers two of them stopped operating since the projects which were being

tested were not practical or economically feasible and the members and parents became discouraged. An important qualification which became evident in Iraq is that the liberal policies or concessions extended to the experimental centers should not be continued as general policies to all new centers; this would hinder the development of the concepts of self-help and self-reliance.

Program Planning

The experiences of the organizers in Iraq showed that it was beneficial to develop a program planning system for the Sadiq Centers. The system brought together the available information and combined it with an orderly sequence of learning for the centers. Since the agricultural agents had limited time for work in the centers the preparation of a yearly plan for each center and a calendar of their activities ensured that the time spent in the centers was productive. In areas where the program planning system was utilized the centers were operating smoothly. It required some persistence on behalf of the Rural Youth Specialists to encourage the agents to develop and follow the planning system. This persistence was manifested through training sessions and regular supervisory visits.

Agricultural Research

The Sadiq Program in Iraq discovered that in order to establish economically viable Sadiq projects, the Extension

Service required specific information on viable small-scale agronomic alternatives. Unfortunately, the research that was available and ongoing was related to large-scale cash crop enterprises. The Extension Service was forced to innovate its own project design and through a trial and error approach, discover which design would be the most satisfactory. This caused some problems in some of the experimental centers. It was important therefore that research provide a series of proven alternatives to be used by the Extension Service. The research may occur in the farmers' field, but it should be recognized as government research, not as a project of a Sadiq Center.

The Extension Service in Iraq began referring research problems of the Sadiq Program back to the research agencies in order to stimulate some type of organized research by these agencies. Results are slow but some progress has been made, especially with the vegetables and field crops projects.

There is a continual dialogue between research and extension personnel in Iraq regarding each others role. The Extension Service expects research to provide innovations for the rural sector but the researchers say it cannot do this without having the problems presented to them by the Extension Service. The Sadiq organizers encouraged researchers to come into the field as much as possible and they were soon able to relate better to the problem which existed. The Sadiq organizers also encouraged the centers to visit the agricultural research stations where the youth and leaders

were able to discuss their problems with the researchers. The research stations developed an interest in the Sadiq Program and were anxious to have some of their proven research field tested by the youth.

This cooperation and interest of researchers was not easy to develop as many were preoccupied with large scale theoretical research and were not too interested in the applied research necessary for the Sadiq program. The nature of the link with a country's agricultural research facilities will be vital for the success of a rural youth training program.

Initial Objectives

In order to ensure success of the Sadiq Program in Iraq, it was necessary to keep the initial objectives of the centers as simple as possible and to follow a regular step-by-step procedure in the establishment of agricultural projects. The initial objectives should be -- to establish a strong group of young people and to keep them enthusiastic and involved in their projects. Having many diverse but interrelated objectives in the beginning (literacy training, health training, sports groups, handicrafts programs) is confusing to the members. All of these activities may become valuable parts of the Sadiq Program in the future, and may even form a part of preliminary skill training, but for the first year or eighteen months a simple central focus is required. This focus is provided by economically productive agricultural projects carried out by the members by utilizing

their own resources.

Establishing Projects

An important principle discovered in Iraq was that to establish agricultural projects in the Sadiq Centers, it was advantageous to start with as simple a project as possible in order to ensure initial success. After the members have learned the skills related to a project, start with a group project to involve all the members. A field crop or vegetable project was a good way to begin and provides the opportunity to teach a small group many skills (cultivation, fertilization, irrigation, marketing). When these members have learned the procedure in carrying out a simple Sadiq project, they can become involved in more complex projects or in carrying a project of their own.

In general, some type of group involvement was shown to be successful in the beginning. Although field crops or vegetables are mentioned as possible projects to begin with, they may not be suitable for all regions. It was shown to be important to select a project which has traditionally proven to be successful in the region, concentrate on improving a few practices associated with the crop and use each step of the growing process to teach the youth an agricultural skill. Another important principle was that projects should provide some financial return to the youth -- i.e., by using the methods suggested, the youth will realize some profit. This will encourage the youth's family to adopt the

project and will promote the self-help concept.

Projects for Sadiq Centers should be planned to keep members occupied throughout the year. If a system of short term and long term projects (e.g., clover production and calf feeding) is set up for each center, it will keep up a constant interest among the members.

Cost Sharing Projects

The government assisted in the construction of several centers by providing some building materials to the members. The members then constructed their own meeting room using their own labor and local materials (bricks, stones, etc.). The members responded well to this incentive and constructed simple but adequate meeting rooms which became the nucleus of a strong center. This program was successful in the few areas in which it was tried and has become an element of government budgeting for the future establishment of new centers.

Experience in Iraq showed that policies of this type often require some extra supervision to ensure that they are not abused. Farmers in Iraq are cautious of government policies as people have been affected in the past by the inconsistency of government programs which have been poorly planned or have been imposed on the people of the village. In order to ensure that this policy is carried out, the funds can be transferred to the center in the form of actual building materials (doors, windows, rafters, etc.).

Programs such as the supplying of building materials stress the self-help principle and involve youth, parents and local leaders, thus strengthening community support for the Sadiq Program. The rural communities have come to realize the sincerity of the Sadiq Program and look on it as a positive type of government activity.

Interdepartmental Coordination

The linkages between departments of the Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform was a vital aspect of establishment of the Sadiq Program. It was necessary to meet with each department and region to explain how the Sadiq activities would involve them and how Sadiq fits into the overall structure of the Ministry and the government. This was a major element of the establishment process and required a great deal of personal contact and explanation, by the directors of the national program. These efforts gave results, however, as after a series of personal visits to the directors of various departments, the cooperation at the field level improved considerably. In the initial stages of development many provincial officials and senior officials in other departments were sceptical about the program even though it had been endorsed by the central government. A concerted effort was made to bring these officials to the field to see what the Sadiq program was doing.

Non-Governmental Involvement

The Sadiq Program in Iraq was basically a governmental operation being instituted as part of the government's rural development program. There was a minimal amount of involvement of organizations not involved with government. The Farmers' Societies in some villages became involved as local leaders or offered the use of their facilities to the Sadiq Center. In spite of this involvement, the majority of organization and stimulation occured through government channels. It was unfortunate that some of the non-government bodies such as the Cooperative Society Board did not take a more spontaneous interest in Sadiq. If the government had taken definite steps to encourage the board to be involved in Sadiq, by administering small-scale credit for example, the Cooperative Society may have begun to give the program more spontaneous support.

In rural youth training schemes in other countries, there is a great involvement of non-governmental organizations which have proven to be very successful. Countries wishing to follow some of the procedures developed in Iraq should not discount non-governmental involvement and explore its potential.

Rate of Growth of Sadiq Program

In the initial stages of the Sadiq Program growth was slow as many people had to be convinced and see for themselves that the program was feasible and necessary. As a

larger number of people began to accept the value of Sadiq the rate of growth accelerated to a point where the number of new centers was beyond the supervisory ability of the National Office. The National Office was encouraged by the author to establish and maintain a reasonable growth rate related to the number of trained officials in the country and the availability of supporting infrastructure and project material. Had the program continued to expand at the rapid rate it had reached there would have been many failures which would have severely discredited the whole Sadiq Program. The rate of expansion is an important issue in establishment.

Recent Development in the Sadiq Program in Iraq

The author has recently had informal reports from Iraq stating that the Sadiq Program was still actively operating and was growing at a steady rate. The Minister of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform made an official statement that the rural youth program is important and should be given every support. There were also reports that at a National Agricultural Conference in Baghdad several farmer delegates wanted to know why the government had not yet started a Sadiq program in their village.

The training and orientation of extension agents is now an ongoing activity and most of the agricultural univer-

sities now teach students some of the principles of rural youth work. The concept of rural youth work seems to have become well established within the priorities of the current government in Iraq.

Concluding Statement

This thesis had the objective of describing an approach to providing a non-formal education program for rural young people. The specific objectives as stated in Chapter I have for the most part been met.

The role of rural youth work and its potential contributions to rural development are outlined using international experiences. The non-formal education process is described and it is shown how its principles could be successfully applied to extension type rural youth programs.

As an example of a non-formal youth program in operation, the author described his experiences with the development of a rural youth program in Iraq. Through the use of an informal evaluation survey of the Iraq program some of the strengths and weaknesses are presented. As a result of the personal experiences of the author and the survey results a series of guidelines have been set out to allow other countries to use the Iraq experience in developing a similar program for rural youth in their own country.

This thesis introduces only one aspect of the work which must be done in the development of rural youth train-

ing programs in developing countries. There are other aspects of rural youth development work such as education programs in non-agricultural activities and personal and citizenship development areas. These issues must of course accurately reflect the development aspirations of each country. The Iraq experience could provide a basis on which further research and experimentation can occur, in promoting the development of rural youth.

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APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE USED IN SADIQ CENTER SURVEY

As was mentioned in the thesis, the survey was conducted by a group of trained extension agents. The interview schedule outlined specific questions and information to be gathered for the survey.

The actual questions asked have been translated from Arabic and are listed in the questionnaire. The unprocessed data obtained for each question and a summary of the major responses are shown below each question. Most of the questions were open-ended with respondents being encouraged to give reasons for their answers. The frequency of each response and the relative frequency is also listed. These frequencies do not always equal the total number of respondents as in many cases only a small number made responses which could be summarized. In other cases, respondents made more than one response for each question, or in an open-ended question gave more than one reason for their answer. The data listed in the questionnaire were processed and used for the analysis presented in Chapter V.

SURVEY SHEET (CLUB & VILLAGE)

Results of Interview with 33 Sadiq Centers

A. Extension Agents and Members

1. Province _____ Date _____
2. Katha & Nahia _____
3. Name of Club _____
4. No. of Members Average 24 / Center
5. Date of club started _____
6. Where clubs organized:
   - Co-op Society: 19 - 59%
   - School: 3 - 9%
   - Extension Village: 9 - 27%
7. Where does club hold its meetings:
   - Co-op Society: 7 = 21%
   - Farmers' Soc.: 6 = 18%
   - Center Meeting Room: 10 = 30%
   - School: 6 = 18%
8. Number of visits by Extension Agents to club each month:

Visits to a Club Per Month	No. of Clubs	%
2	5	15%
4	14	43%
8	15	15%
12	7	21%

9. Agricultural projects of club:

Number of Members:

1. Poultry 202 members
2. Vegetables 110 members
3. Field crops 150 members
4. Handicrafts 65 members
5. Bee hives 71 members

10. Demonstrations or skills taught to club:

(Not a project)	Tractor & plowing skills - 2 centers = 6.2%
(One time skill training)	Handicrafts - 5 centers - 15.6%
	Field crops & vegetables - 4 centers = 12.5%

11. Other activities of club: (trips, films, celebrations):

1.	Educ. tours	10 = 30%
2.	Visit other Sadiq Clubs	9 = 28%
3.	Celebrations, films	8 = 25%
4.	Pleasure trips	2 = 6.2%

12. Are there local leaders in the club?

YES	Number: 1 leader	24 = 75%
	2 leaders	47 = 12.5%
	3 leaders	3 = 9.4%
	4 leaders	1 = 3.1%

13. What are some activities of the local leaders of the club:

a.	Attend meetings	11 = 34%
b.	Supervision of members	9 = 27%
c.	Assist. Extension Agent	22 = 67%
d.	Agree with & support program	15 = 45%

B. MEMBERS OF CENTER ONLY

1. Does the center have a chief (member group leader) for the club: Yes - 31 = 94%.

   a. How was he chosen:

1.	By members	24 = 75%
2.	By extension agent	8 = 25%

   b. Why was he chosen:

1.	Thought capable by peers	14 = 43.8%
2.	Excelled in his work	6 = 18.8%
3.	Eldest	9 = 28.1%

2. Does the center have a local leader who helps with the club activities? Yes - 31 = 94%.

   a. Why do you think he was chosen?

1.	He was interested	11 = 33%
2.	Popular in village	10 = 30%
3.	High level official	1 = 3%

3. How often does the Extension Agent visit the center? Range from 1 visit to 12 visits per month. Average = 5.79.

   a. Do members meet with the Extension Agent in the field or in a special place?

1. Agricultural Co-operative Society Building	11 = 34%
2. Meeting room (private home or constructed by center members)	6 = 20%
3. In field - no facilities, no fixed location	9 = 27%

4. Do members' parents object to them leaving houses to attend meetings of the Sadiq Center?

No	26 = 81%
Yes	3 = 10%

5. Percentage of Members Involved in Project in each Center

% of Members Involved	No. of Clubs with this Involvement	% of Clubs with this Involvement	Cumulative Percentage
100%	7	20.0	20.0
80 - 100%	3	8.5	28.5
60 - 80%	5	14.3	42.8
40 - 60%	5	14.3	57.1
20 - 40%	7	20.0	77.1
0 - 20%	3	8.5	85.6
	30	85.6%	

   a. To members who are not involved in a project: What are the reasons? (e.g., no money, no land, parents, etc.)

1. No money	8 = 24%
2. No facilities	16 = 48%
3. No desire (member or parent)	8 = 24%

   b. To members who do not have projects: What are the attractions of the Sadiq Center?

1. Project work	13 = 39%
2. Recreation	7 = 20%
3. Skills	8 =
4. Tours & trips	5 = 15%
5. Literacy	2 = 6%

6. Number (%) of members who attend school? 83%

   a. To members not attending school, what are the reasons?

1. Working on farm	15 = 45%
2. No desire, members or parents	8 = 26%
3. No school	6 = 18%
4. Parents don't agree	4 = 12%
5. Financial	2 = 9%

   b. Why do members attend Sadiq Centers and not attend school?

1. Activities related directly to agriculture	11 = 33%
2. Education and enjoyable	5 = 15%
3. Receive money for projects	6 = 18%
4. Center close to home	5 = 15%

   c. Do members in school receive agricultural lessons? If yes, what type?

Yes	28 = 85%
No	2 = 6%

7. Do members' parents/family use the productions of their projects or is it sold in the market?

	Sold/Consumed	Sold	Consumed
a. Poultry	11 = 61%	6 = 33%	1 = 5%
Vegetables	5 = 60%	2 = 20%	2 = 20%
Bee Hives	2 = 40%	1 = 20%	2 = 40%

   b. Which of these products do you not have or use in your family normally?

1. Poultry - eggs	18 = 55%	Do not normally eat eggs
2. Bee Hives - honey	10 = 30%	Do not normally eat honey
3. Vegetables	9 = 27%	Do not normally eat vegetables

   c. If these products -- eggs, honey, vegetables -- were sold in the market, what was the money used for?

1. Projects (concentrate, bees)	12 = 36%
2. Food and supplies for family	11 = 33%
3. Personal effects for youth	10 = 30%

8. Estimate for center as a whole, how much money was received by members and their families as a result of Sadiq projects?

I.D.*	10 - 25	5 = 15%
I.D.	25 - 100	3 = 9%
I.D.	100 +	1 = 3%

* I.D. is Iraq's Dinar - 1 I.D. = $3.40 Canadian.

9. Members have been shown many skills in their projects with Sadiq Clubs. Have their parents taken any of these new ideas for their own farming practices (e.g., new vegetable varieties, concentrate for poultry, new poultry variety)? Give examples.

1.	Poultry care, vaccination & concentrate	17 = 53%
2.	New vegetable varieties, planting methods	10 = 31.3%
3.	No	4 = 12%
4.	Fertilizer use	2 = 6%

10. If for some reason a member's project failed, what do you think were the reasons?

1.	Disease	19 = 59.4%
2.	Neglect - member	10 = 31.3%
3.	No water available	3 = 9%
4.	Neglect - agent	2 = 6%
5.	No land available	1 = 3%
6.	No information	1 = 3%

11. Number of members who would like to be farmers when they grow up? 35% Number who will <u>not</u> be farmers? 65%

a. What will they do?

1.	Professional (teachers, doctors)	20 = 60%
2.	Government officials	14 = 42%
3.	Industry	5 = 16%
4.	Soldiers	4 = 12%

12. Reasons for joining Sadiq Centre? (Ask members to indicate which of these reasons they agree with.)

		<u>% of Members</u>
1.	Wanted an agricultural project to work on	44%
2.	Parents wanted them to join	20%
3.	Recreation and fun of being in a group	14%
4.	Occupy some time	12%
5.	Toura and trips offered by center	9%

13. Which activities of the center do they enjoy most?

1.	Visits and tours	13 = 40%
2.	Recreation	10 = 30%
3.	Projects	8 = 25%
4.	Films	5 = 16%

14. Which do they not enjoy?

Poultry	7 = 21%

15. What activities have you done co-operatively (e.g., build a centre, vegetable field, planting trees)?

1.	Centre building	13 = 40%
2.	Vegetable fields	13 = 40%
3.	Tree planting	4 = 12%

16. What co-operative projects do they think would benefit their center?

1.	Poultry	15 = 45%
2.	Vegetable & cereals	10 = 30%
3.	Calves/sheep	3 = 9%
4.	Center building	2 = 6%

17. Has project work in Sadiq Centers increased their desire to work in agriculture in the future? Explain:

Yes	28 = 85%
No	3 = 9%

18. What new activities or projects would they like to do in their Sadiq Center?

1.	Calves/sheep	16 = 50.0%
2.	Poultry	11 = 34.4%
3.	Bees	2 = 6.2%
4.	Center building	
5.	Handicraft	5 = 15.6%
6.	Tours and trips	5 = 15.6%

C. Youth of Village -- Non-Members of Centre

1. Are they aware of activities of Sadiq Center?

Yes	20 = 62.5%
No	3 = 9.4%
No reply	9 = 28.1%

2. Are they attending school?

Yes	18 = 56.3%
No	5 = 15.6%
No reply	9 = 28.1%

3. If not in school how do they spend their time? Explain:

a. Farming	18 = 55%
b. Playing, leisure time	10 = 30%
c. Tending sheep and cows	5 = 16%

4. Do some of their friends belong to Sadiq Center?

Yes	20 = 62.5%
No	3 = 9.4%
No reply	9 = 28.1%

5. Do they think they will join the club in the future? Why?

Yes - 50% No - 22%

Learning agriculture	9 = 27%
Enjoy activities	5 = 16%
Busy being a shepherd or farming	6 = 18%

No reply - 28%

D. Adults and Local Leaders Involved in Sadiq Center

Clearly explain purpose of your questions and background on Clubs.

1. If their son wanted to have a Sadiq project under the supervision of the Extension Agent, would they provide him with the money, land, building he needed?

Yes	22 = 69%
No	5 = 15.6%
No reply	5 = 15%

2. Have their sons been involved in any agricultural projects which were new activities to them (or through which they learned some new/different information)? Give examples:

1. Poultry	17 = 51%
2. Cereals & oil seeds	9 = 27%
3. Vegetables	6 = 18%
4. Beekeeping	3 = 9%
5. Handicraft	2 = 6%

3. Do they want their son to remain working in agriculture, e.g., work as a farmer, when he grows up?

Yes	18 = 56.3%
No	8 = 25%
Possibly	1 = 3.1%
No reply	5 = 15.6%

4. Have they noticed any change in their boys or in their whole family as a result of Sadiq Center activities? Explain?

Yes	20 = 62.5%	Boys do not have so much leisure time. Spend it with their Sadiq projects.
No	4 = 12.5%	
No reply	8 = 25.0%	

5. Which projects of the Sadiq Center do they think are the best?

1. Poultry
2. Vegetables
3. Beekeeping
4. Field crops

Ranked in order of actual choice by members.

6. If their sons were not involved in Sadiq Center activities, what would they be doing with their time?

1. Playing	14 = 42%
2. Tending sheep and cows	12 = 36%
3. Working with father	8 = 25%

7. Do they think it is necessary for their sons to get outside knowledge (from Extension Agent) about agriculture or do they think they can teach them all that is necessary? Explain:

Require outside knowledge - Yes 27 = 80%

1. Provides scientific information	22 = 66%
2. Improves production	3 = 9%
3. Changes behavior of boys	2 = 6%

8. If their son has an agricultural project, do they want him to work collectively with others or to work on it individually in their own house/land? Explain:

Collectively	16 = 50.0%
Individually	12 = 37.5%
	4 = 12.5%

E. To Adults Who Are Not Involved with Sadiq Centre

Number interviewed: 26 villages.

1. Do they know about the activities of the Sadiq Club in their village?

Yes	18 = 59.4%
No	2 = 6%
Some knowledge	1 = 3.1%
No reply	10 = 31.3%

2. Do they want their sons to remain on the farm when they grow up?

Yes	8 = 25%
No	9 = 28.1%
Undecided	4 = 12.5%
No reply	11 = 34%

3. Has their production per donum increased over the last 5 years?

Yes	16 = 50%
No	5 = 15.6%
No reply	11 = 34.4%

4. Do they think they (their sons) will be involved in the Sadiq Program in the future?

Yes	17 = 53.1%
No	3 = 9.4%
Undecided	12 = 3.1%
No reply	11 = 34.4%

5. What do they think is the purpose of the Extension Service in their village?

1.	Teach agriculture	19 = 75%
2.	Contact point with government	6 = 18%
3.	Protect animals and crops	4 = 12%
4.	Work with youth	3 = 9%

F. Government Officials Information Sheet/Use One Sheet for Each Group of Individuals Interviewed

- 72 officials interviewed

Note: Not all officials answered each question and some answered with two or three ideas so the number of officials responding does not always equal 72 nor does the percentage always equal 100.

1. Province

2. Position in government?

Extension Agent	21 = 29.2%
Co-op Agent	3 = 4.2%
Supervisor	22 = 21.6%
Director	26 = 35.7%
	72

3. No. of years in government service?

Less than 5 years	39 = 54%
Less than 10 years	16 = 22.2%
Less than 15 years	6 = 8.3%
More than 15 years	4 = 5.6%
No reply	7 = 9.7%

4. Site of work: N/A.

5. If direct involvement with Sadiq Program, name of centre? N/A.

6. Has official attended a training course in Rural Youth? If yes, when?

Yes	25 = 35%	10 in 1972 15 in 1973
No	45 = 63%	
No reply	2 = 2%	

7. Is the official in contact with Sadiq Program?

a. Extension Agent, Co-operative Agent -- how much time spent per week in the field with Sadiq activities?

1 day	6 = 28%
2 days	5 = 25%
More than 2 days	6 = 28%

b. If supervisor: What percent of activities relate to Sadiq Program?

Percent of Supervisor's Time

25% - 7 = 31%
50% - 2 = 10%
75% - 7 = 31%

c. If director: What percent of business in his office relates to Sadiq activities in his province?

Percent of Director's Time

5% - 4 = 19%
10% - 3 = 11%
15% - 6 = 30%

Has this percent of business increased or decreased in the last 6 months?

Increased 10 = 35%
Decreased 2 = 8%

The following are questions or statements to be directed at all officials. There are no correct answers, you are trying to record the opinions of officials in provinces.

8. Is the Sadiq Program in its present form making a "significant" contribution to agricultural development in this region and Iraq in general. Yes, No, Explain.

Yes	50 = 69.4%
No	11 = 15.3%
No reply	11 = 15.3%

1. Projects are providing new methods in areas 35 = 49%
2. The program teaches co-operative work 11 = 15%

9. Should the Sadiq Program be stopped until some of the major agricultural development projects are completed (e.g., drainage and irrigation for all Iraq, all farmers in co-operative societies and collected villages)? Yes, No, Explain.

Yes	9 = 12%
No	58 = 80.6%
No reply	5 = 6.9%

Sadiq must be carried at the same time as it assists in the completion of large-scale projects 26 = 36%

The work of Sadiq Program is not related to the large projects 19 = 27%

The Sadiq Program must have all facilities 7 = 10%

10. Extension and Co-operative Agents should work with production projects and not with long term educational programs.

Yes	21 = 30%
No	45 = 62.5%
No reply	6 = 8.3%

If youth have a good educational base they will increase production for the future 24 = 33%

They must work with both programs at same time 19 = 26%

Extension agents must work in short and long term projects 12 = 17%

11. Adults and youth must be able to read and write before a good extension program can be carried out.

Yes	31 = 43.1%
No	37 = 51.4%
No reply	4 = 5.6%

Not necessary, can use other methods and teach literacy at same time 28 = 40%

Extension Agents should teach literacy 21 = 30%

If people are literate they accept ideas more easily 21 = 30%

If people are literate production will increase 7 = 11%

12. Should the Sadiq Program concentrate on youth who are attending school or on those who are not attending?

In school	21 = 29.2%
No school	24 = 33%
Both	21 = 29.2%

Non-school will remain in agriculture, therefore will receive the best benefit from the program 23 = 33%

School youth accept information faster 17 = 24%

A mixture of youth will help to stimulate attendance at school and harmony in the community 14 = 20%

13. It is of no use to give agriculture training to youth as they cannot increase agricultural production in the near future and this is an important goal for Iraq. Yes, No, Explain.

Yes	8 = 11.1%
No	58 = 80.6%
No reply	6 = 8.3%

The training will be of benefit in the future 39 = 55%

The education given now will increase production for the future 15 = 21%

The parents of the youth are affected in the short run production 8 = 11%

14. Do you see the Sadiq Program as a part of the Extension and Co-operative Program or as a non-related activity? Yes, No, Explain.

Yes	66 = 91.7%
No	3 = 4.2%
No reply	3 = 4.2%

It covers the same work of Extension and Co-op 44 = 62%

Provides skills to youth, therefore to their parents 22 = 31%

It helps cover whole farm family 14 = 20%

The youth will be the future farmers 10 = 14%

15. The Sadiq Program is one method of introducing improved agricultural ideas to the farm family, <u>is it the best method</u>, or are there better ways, this goal can be reached? Yes, No, Explain.

Yes	53 = 73.6%
No	13 = 18.1%
No reply	6 = 8.3%

Has a strong affect on parents 12 = 16.2%

Very important progress for country 26 = 35.1%

Teaches skills to youth 25 = 33.7%

Demonstrations are a better way 11 = 14.86%

16. Would the people you are talking to like to work with or continue to work with the Sadiq Program? Yes, No, Explain.

Yes	50 = 69.4%
No	2 = 2.8%
No reply	20 = 27.8%

They like the work and see it as important to Iraq 29 = 40%

Like to continue if all facilities are provided and the work becomes more specialized 7 = 10%

Program is good and should be extended to all youth 5 = 7%

17. To field workers with Sadiq Program: Have you been approached with the question that rural youth work is only playing with children and not related to an agriculturist's work? What was your reply?

Yes	12 = 17%
No	14 = 20%
No reply	46 = 63%